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ART. I.—*Richard the First, a Poem: in Eighteen Books. By Sir James Bland Burges, Bart. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 5s. Boards.* Egerton. 1801.

IT was a source of triumph to foreigners, only a few years ago, that, notwithstanding our superior pretensions in almost every branch of metrical composition, we could not boast of a single epic poem founded upon the events of English history. This assertion it must be confest was by no means far from the truth; and it should seem that the bards of the present day have felt the full force of the remark, and have laboured with all their might to render it, in future, inapplicable. For, independently of the Arthur of Mr. Hole, which was published some years since, the period of the last twelvemonth alone has either produced or promised us not less than five national epic poems, upon various subjects, and of various merit. We refer to the Siege of Acre of Mrs. Cowley, the Alfred of Mr. Cottle and Mr. Pye, the Britannia of Dr. Ogilvie, and the present poem, by sir James Bland Burges. Of these we have already noticed one or two, and shall proceed to pay attention to the rest in the order in which they reach us. We are now, however, called to the exclusive consideration of Richard the First.

The author has been fortunate in the subject he has selected: it is sufficiently full of historical incident for the basis of an epic poem, without any considerable deviation from the line of recorded facts; and, at the same time, the period is so happily remote from the present generation as to admit of those variations which the poet may judge necessary without insulting the testimony of our own senses or recollection. It embraces, moreover, an æra replete with military glory to the nation: its heroic exploits are, for the most part, exhibited in that quarter of the world to which the eye of every state, and particularly of the British empire, is at this moment directed with the keenest expectation;—and it has therefore a peculiar claim upon the attention of the poet's countrymen. In addition to all this, we hesitate not to assert that the poem itself is possest of a very high degree

of merit, and challenges, more than any one we have lately perused, the strictures of manly and liberal criticism.

Such strictures we now proceed to offer: and if, in the course of our investigation, we be found occasionally to condemn with severity, and occasionally to applaud with ardour, let us not be supposed contradictory to ourselves;—the incongruity, we trust, will be acknowledged to reside in the poem before us, and not in our own judgement. We shall commence with a brief epitome of the subject: we shall then notice many of the chief incidents more at large, animadvert upon the author's style and manner of writing, and select several specimens of his more prominent beauties and defects.

The poem opens with a general statement of Saladin's usurpation of Palestine, the different nations who joined him in the conquest, and the different European forces which had united in the crusade against him. Of these last the principal were those of France led on by Philip, and those of England by Richard. The reader is then presented with a picture of pandæmonium: the arch-rebel summons his infernal chiefs around him, and, from the consultation that ensues, it appears that Saladin was excited to his assault upon Judæa by the machinations of hell; and that, as, in consequence of the bold exploits of the crusaders, Judæa is almost wrenched from his hands again, some other plan must be devised, or the great object of the infernal powers will be frustrated. The plan proposed is to sow dissensions among the Christian chiefs: and as Richard is the hero whom they most dread, and who has principally contributed to the success of the Christian forces, to point their principal efforts against him, both in Palestine and at home. Philip is influenced in consequence by Belial to separate himself from Richard, whom he had sworn not to quit, and to return home with the greater part of his forces—to unite himself with John, the brother of Richard, and attempt the seisure both of Normandy and England during the continuance of Richard's absence: while Moloch hastens to the latter country, and afflicts it with famine, pestilence, and an insurrection of the people.

The second book commences with the operations of Philip in Normandy, and John in England; together with those of queen Elinor, the mother of Richard, and of her council to resist the revolt. Intelligence is at this time suddenly brought by Leicester, one of Richard's chief general officers, of his immediate return: the royal fleet appears—queen Berengaria and her attendants land—but she is not accompanied by her royal husband. He, it seems, had been shipwrecked in another vessel during a violent storm, and was supposed to have been cast on the Dalmatian coast. A council is immediately summoned to confer upon the best means of preserving the safety of the realm and ascertaining the fate of the king; and this latter task is committed to Blondel,

a young friend and confidant of Richard, who had exhibited surprising proofs of prowess during the course of the crusade.

The third book is devoted to the expedition of Blondel, who commences his journey in disguise—travels into Germany—learns from an old cottager near Vienna that Richard had been seised by Leopold duke of Austria, and sold to the emperor Henry, who expected to derive an enormous ransom for him from his subjects; but in what peculiar fortress he was confined the old peasant could not inform him. Blondel advances towards Worms, and, perceiving a dreary and rugged castle, which appeared to be guarded with extreme care, conceives that his royal master may probably be immured within its walls: he obtains an entrance into it under the disguise of a minstrel; and his suspicions are confirmed from the conversation that ensues between the officers to whom the care of the castle is committed. His powers of melody are highly applauded, but he is not allowed to sleep in the interior of the walls; and without having completely ascertained the fact, he is compelled at midnight to return to the wilderness of the surrounding forest. Almost in a state of despondency, he perceives, by the light of the moon, a small grated window towards the summit of one of the towers of the castle, and conjectures that this may be the spot in which Richard is confined: the guards are now all sunk in deep slumber, and to ascertain the fact he strikes upon his harp an air he was frequently accustomed to play to the king in Palestine. Blondel's conjecture is verified; aroused by the well-known strain, Richard discovers himself through the grating; a conference ensues; and Blondel returns to England with the intelligence.

In the fourth book, after the dispatch of Leicester for the defence of Normandy, Mortimer, Blondel, and Pembroke are commissioned to demand of the emperor the king's release. Their expedition is detailed: they learn that the princes of the empire, having heard of Richard's captivity, had compelled the emperor to call a diet for the purpose of negotiating his release. They arrive at Worms, and have an audience of the emperor: the diet ensues; Richard is arraigned before it, and the emperor states his charges against him, as enumerated by Matthew Paris, and admitted by most of our historians.

Book the fifth commences with Richard's defence, which extends to book the eleventh, and gives a minute detail of his voyage from England to Palestine, and of the incidents and exploits of the crusade from his first debarkation till his total defeat of Saladin at Jaffa, and the truce that immediately followed. The king is unanimously acquitted, and leaves the hall in triumph. The emperor is thrown into a phrensy; Belial experiences the severest mortification, and endeavours to atone for his disappointment by repairing to England with his associates, and once more exciting the people to insurrection.

The twelfth book delineates the insurrection, excited by the dæmons, and headed by Fitz-Osbert, who conducts the infuriate crowd towards London, and harangues them in its vicinity. He is here met by Fitz-Allan, the lord-mayor, accompanied by a band of faithful citizens, who replies to the false arguments of the demagogue, but without effect: a struggle between the parties commences; and, at this moment, Richard suddenly arrives with a puissant troop of warriors, and expostulates with the seditious crowd, who are overpowered by his eloquence, and, to the confusion and disappointment of the dæmons, retire peaceably to their own homes, excepting Fitz-Osbert, who is secured, tried, and hung for his traitorous conspiracy.

The remaining books, from the thirteenth to the eighteenth, represent the determination of Richard to relieve Normandy, and avenge his wrongs on the French king—the efforts of Satan and his fellow dæmons to frustrate his success, and the additional mortifications they sustained—the arrival of the English armament in Normandy—the various battles that ensued; the final triumph of the English monarch; and the ratification of a peace between the antagonist powers, with which last incident the poem concludes.

It should seem, from the general practice of modern bards, that the use of some system of supernatural agency is essential to the construction of an epic poem. Without staying to investigate the basis of such a necessity, we shall only observe that the system selected by sir Bland Burges, and which may pertinently be entitled the Miltonic, is far superior to any other with which we are acquainted. The mythology of Dante, and indeed of most of the earlier Italian poets, is a strange and heterogeneous intermixture of the Christian creed with the idolatry of the Greeks: and though Camoens has endeavoured to vindicate this system from incongruity, it is still too ludicrous and absurd to be persevered in any longer. Such indeed appears to have been the opinion of Ariosto, near half a century prior to the attempt of Camoens; for in his Orlando Furioso he rejected the mythology of the Greeks altogether, and introduced in its stead the Saracenic system of sorcery and enchantment; a machinery which admitted of all the playfulness of fancy, and which was admirably adapted to the subject of Oriental crusades, as constituting the actual superstition of the enemies of the cross. The intrinsic beauty of this machinery induced Torquato Tasso to continue it in his Jerusalem Delivered, and Spencer to introduce it into his Fairy Queen: and it was followed either more or less perfectly, as more or less combined with what has generally been denominated the Gothic superstition of ghosts and spectres, till the period of Milton, who had the happiness to deduce, from the bible itself, a machinery as much exceeding all that had preceded it in the universality of

its application as in the sublimity and inexhaustible variety of its characters. To this system the poets of all nations, and particularly those of Germany, seem to have acceded ever since, with a deep conviction of its unrivalled excellence. Voltaire himself can scarcely be regarded as an exception; for the præternatural machinery of the Henriad is a compound of the Miltonic, or sacred, and the Helenistic, or Grecian—a compound far more incongruous, in consequence of such intermixture, than that of Camoens, notwithstanding all the pains of the French poet to expose the inconsistencies of the Portuguese.

But though we approve of the mythological system of the poem before us, we can by no means approve of the very feeble use which is made of it; for never have we seen or heard of such poor devils of dæmons as are here presented to us. The heroes of flesh and blood are their superiors in every respect: in no one instance are they successful; their votaries refuse uniformly to execute the full extent of their projects; and the warriors whom they oppose are triumphant over them in every instance. In the language of the poem itself,

> ' ———unprotected virtue breaks their spell,
> And man triumphant mocks the vanquish'd powers of hell.' B. xi.

If the author, who cannot but be acquainted with it, had pursued the very pertinent advice of Horace,—

> ' Nec deus intersit, nisi dignus vindice nodus
> Inciderit,—'

he would have omitted the introduction of this dæmoniacal agency altogether: and unless it be made to bear with infinitely more importance upon the subject of the poem in some future edition than it does at present, we would advise such an omission: for surely nothing can be more absurd than to introduce powers armed with præternatural capacities, while they are perpetually vanquished by the ordinary efforts of mortals.

The dæmons here presented to us are no less deficient in discrimination of character than in energy of action. The only personages almost who make their appearance, for there is a dreadful dearth of agents, are Satan, Moloch, and Belial. Of the two latter the first has uniformly, from the days of Milton, been regarded as peculiarly the dæmon of devastation and war:

> ' ——————the strongest and the fiercest spirit
> That fought in heaven, now fiercer by despair:
> His trust was with th' Eternal to be deemed
> Equal in strength; and rather than be less
> Cared not to be at all.' Par. Lost. B. ii.

The same character is specifically copied by Klopstok.

' Drauf eilt Moloch, ein kreigrischer geist, von seinen gebirgen—
——————————Ihn sehn die erdebeswinger
Unten erstaunungsvoll an. Er rauschte von seinen gebirgen
Durch sie gewaltig einher. Sie wichen, geflügelt von ehrfurcht,
Vor dem krieger. Er ging, von seiner tönenden rüstung
Dunkel, wie der donner von schwarzen wolken, umgeben.
Vor ihm bebte der berg, und hinter ihm sanken die felsen
Zitternd herab.'

Forth from his rocks impregnable came next
The martial spirit Moloch. Him the ghosts
Of earth-born heroes, marked with dread amaze:
Forth rush'd he from his rocks, while, winged, with fear,
They fled the mighty warrior as he trod.
From the black clouds, like thunder, at each step,
Rattled his sable armour: the huge hills
Before him shook—the mountains shook behind.

The character of Belial is the reverse of that of Moloch, and it is well preserved both by M. Klopstok and Mr. Cumberland. Averse from the severe toils of warfare, he is ever for prevailing against the enemy, and accomplishing the same object by craft, intrigue, and sophistry of argument:

' ——————————his tongue
Dropt manna, and could make the worse appear
The better reason.' Par. Lost. b. ii.

We should naturally have supposed therefore, that, as the object of the dæmons was to oppose the Christian league by every mean in their power, Moloch would have been dispatched to Palestine, the immediate seat of war, to invigorate by his presence the armies of Saladin, and to lead them on to victory; while, if it were found necessary, Belial would have been commissioned to England to excite the people to insurrection by sophistry and intrigue, and thus render the return of Richard, the hero of the crusade, absolutely necessary. Sir B. Burges, however, has thought proper to reverse this plan;—the dæmon of war is dispatched to England to pursue the work of craft and machination, having for his aides-de-camp, Pestilence, Famine, and Civil Discord; and the dæmon of intrigue is commissioned to Judæa, not indeed to assist the power of Saladin (for, contrary to our expectations, the Saracenic chief derives no kind of assistance from any of the infernal spirits), but to excite a dispute between Richard and Philip. Moloch, however, as we should readily preconceive, finds himself baffled in his new undertaking: he returns dispirited to hell, drops entirely the character of the daring and undaunted chief who had no hesitation in deeming himself equal in strength to the Eternal, and even submits to be reprimanded by Satan—while Belial usurps the language which ought to have proceeded from the mouth of Moloch alone.

'Let cowards trembling crouch before thy throne!
To Belial's nobler soul such baseness is unknown.' Vol. ii. p. 132.

In fine Belial is under the necessity of renewing the attempt upon England in which Moloch had proved so little successful; while the latter dæmon is banished entirely from the remainder of the poem, as though the author did not know on what other expedition to employ so bungling a spirit. Satan accompanies him; they exert themselves to their utmost; but even in this second effort the powers of hell are as completely frustrated as in their first. We have now the introduction of a new dæmon, under the title of FALSE PHILOSOPHY; but we cannot praise the creative talent of our poet in this instance. The part undertaken by False Philosophy should have been performed by Belial himself; independently of which this intermixture of allegory with pure mythology is highly incorrect and unclassical. The object of the author is self-evident: but it forms one of the greatest blemishes in his poem. The new fangled doctrines of the present day have certainly no concern with the political disputations of the æra of Richard the First. To this subject, however, we shall have occasion to return in the prosecution of our strictures.

In the verses that follow we trace the masterly touch of genuine poetry: they comprise the apparition of Belial to the emperor Henry, prior to the arraignment of Richard before the diet. We insert them with much pleasure.

'Her silent reign now solemn midnight held,
And from her poppies soft oblivion shed,
As high her cloudy chariot she impell'd,
And deep her shadows o'er th' horizon spread.
The conscious tyrant on his lofty bed
Alone partook not of the gen'ral rest:
From his still wakeful eye-lids slumber fled,
While strong conflicting passions tore his breast,
And shame, revenge, and fear, his lab'ring mind oppress'd.

'Vainly to court her fost'ring aid he tried;
But she, tho' oft invok'd, her calm repose
To his still agitated soul denied.
Thro' the deep gloom ideal phantoms rose,
And flitting forms, as if denouncing woes,
Quick gliding by his couch terrific pass'd,
And groans were heard, and agonising throes.
Starting, around his eager eyes he cast
To trace their course obscene, then sank with dread aghast.

'A clammy sweat his trembling limbs bedew'd,
And wide diverging stood his bristling hair,
While conscience her appalling charge renew'd,
Shook her keen whip, and urg'd him to despair.
With horror struck, he would have breath'd a prayer:

But ere his tongue the impulse new obey'd,
He heard the sound of pinions thro' the air,
And straightway at his side appear'd a shade,
Of outline undefin'd, as if in clouds array'd.

'It seem'd as though resembling human form,
Of size gigantic and imperial mein,
Black and confus'd, as when thro' wintry storm
A mountain vast in mist obscure is seen,
When brooding tempests robe it's summits green,
And o'er it's brow contending meteors play,
From what appear'd it's head flash'd light'nings keen,
Casting around a blue sulphureous ray,
Which fill'd the tyrant's soul with terror and dismay.

'Waving what shew'd a hand, around him broke
In fearful chorus thunders loud and deep,
While thus with accents harsh the vision spoke.' Vol. i. p. 135.

The whole picture is an obvious imitation of the sublime description of the apparition in the book of Job: and although not equal to the original, this latter has never, that we know of, been executed with greater success.

Our objection to the dæmonology of the poem is not more insuperable than to the female personages introduced. These consist but of three—Elinor, the mother of Richard; Berengaria, his queen; and the princess Cariclæa, her friend and companion; —yet they are deficient in interest of character, and in very few instances contribute to the progress of the plan. They have each of them their foundation in history it is true; but so unessential are they to the general design of the epic before us, that no sensible chasm would be produced if they were altogether omitted. We are astonished that sir B. Burges has made no use of the princess Alice of France, to whom there is every reason to suppose that Richard had been formally betrothed, and his desertion of whom was, in reality, a principal cause of the dispute between himself and the French monarch. Her introduction, if skilfully managed, might have been subservient to much epic effect. We learn from the page of history that Berengaria was present in Palestine during the crusade, and was indeed conducted there for the purpose of espousing Richard, by his mother queen Elinor:—perhaps some interest might have been given to her arrival if she had not reached Judæa till after the final triumph of the English monarch at Jaffa, and had at that moment, in reward for his unrivalled prowess, honoured him with her hand, and their nuptials had been celebrated with Oriental pomp and magnificence. But there is little dignity or effect in the narration of her voyage and debarkation, as it occurs at present. Why she should have accompanied the king in his posterior expedition to Normandy we are totally at a loss to conjecture; for here she seems to be perpetually in the way, and her attendance is

not sanctioned by history. The following is the parting scene of Richard and herself prior to the battle of Gaalor, in which the English obtained a final triumph over Philip of France. Richard is accompanied by his confidential friend Blondel, and the queen is found attended by Cariclæa, princess of Cyprus.

'The chamber ent'ring, England's queen they view'd,
Who with the Cyprian maid, tho' wan'd the night,
The pleasing labours of her web pursued.
There trac'd they Cæsarea's glorious fight,
And many a champion brave, and many a knight
Seem'd there again his puissant arm to wield:
Again was seen the Saracenic flight,
Blondel again display'd his succouring shield,
And Richard there again shone master of the field.

'Surpris'd they left their half-unfinish'd toil,
And Berengaria, hast'ning tow'rds the king,
Greeted his presence with a heav'nly smile.
"Whate'er," she cried, "my love may hither bring,
He finds us here from time's oblivious wing
Employ'd to save the wonders of his hand.
While poetry thy great exploits shall sing,
And Richard's worth by history shall be scann'd,
By us, more humbly wrought, shall they recorded stand."

"Thou know'st," replied he, "that no ampler praise
Than thy approval my fond soul requires
Tow'rds fair renown it's energies to raise.
For thee my heart beats high with pure desires,
Thy mild attractive grace my bosom fires
With pure attachment and congenial love.
Yet wayward fate against our joys conspires:
Resistless duty bids me hence remove,
Again for England's sake the chance of war to prove."

"Ah! what," exclaim'd she, "now provokes thee hence!
Must then my fond, too-susceptible heart
Be doom'd again to anguish and suspense?
Oh death! in pity here infix thy dart;
Strike deep, and ease at once my tort'ring smart!
Are there no means to ward the threat'ned blow?
Must we again, when scarce united, part?
Ah! must I still augmented torments know,
In wretchedness supreme, sublime in lengthen'd woe!"

'Weeping she spoke, and tore her auburn hair,
Then, with a sigh which seem'd her heart to break,
She sank, a silent image of despair.' Vol. ii. p. 285.

In this passage our author has evidently had in view the parting of Hector and Andromache; but we cannot congratulate him on any very high degree of success with respect to the imitation.

We seem only reminded of the exquisite original to weep over the insipidity of its imitation. The introduction indeed of Astyanax, the infant son of the Trojan hero, gives a tenderness to the scene in the Iliad which could not possibly be transfused into that of Richard the First; and the pathetic apostrophe with which Andromache concludes her recital of the misfortunes she had formerly sustained by the death of her mother, and the fall of her father and her seven brothers in the hostile field, is scarcely to be paralleled in ancient or modern poetry. Il. Z. 429.

Εκτορ, αταρ συ μοι εσσι πατηρ, και ποτνια μητηρ,
Ηδε κασιγνητος, συ δε μοι Σαλερος παρακοιτης.
Αλλ' αγε, νυν ελεαιρε, και αυτου μιμν' επι πυργω,
Μη παιδ' ορφανικον θεις, χηρην τε γυναικα.

'Yet while my Hector still survives, I see
My father, mother, brethren, all in thee.
Alas! my parents, brothers, kindred all,
Once more will perish if my Hector fall:
Thy wife, thy infant, in thy danger share:
Oh prove a husband's and a father's care!' POPE.

The part, however, that has most excited our disapprobation in the present poem is the outrageous introduction of the whole farrago of modern politics into the twelfth book. The people are excited to insurrection by Fitz-Osbert and Baldock, or rather by the new-created dæmon False Philosophy in the semblance of Baldock;—they are commencing their outrages in the vicinity of London, and the efforts of the lord-mayor, Fitz-Allan, are incapable of appeasing their fury. At this moment Richard unexpectedly arrives on the banks of the Thames, and, surrounded by his captains, advances to the rebellious rout, with whom, instead of instantaneously dispersing them with dignified vengeance, he enters into a most insufferable political debate, attending to the complaints of the demagogue Baldock, and replying by a repugnant harangue. We should be unjust to the duty of rigid impartiality if we were not to favour our readers with a specimen of the rant of Pain and Thelwall on one side; and of Messrs. Reeves, Gifford, and Bowles, on the opposite; thus *done* into most sublime and edifying metre. The following is a part of Baldock's declamation to the people in the presence of his monarch, after Richard had opened the debate.

" For tyranny when thus a tyrant pleads,
Can ye with patience hear his vain discourse,
While by his hand your injur'd country bleeds,
And looks to you as to her sole resource?
Where are your feelings? Where is nature's force?
Where those exertions which her insults claim?
Trace but your suff'rings to their parent source,
The fatal truth shall dye your cheeks with shame,
Harrow your hearts, and stamp with infamy your name.'

Vol. ii. p. 100.

" Too long has prejudice the world misled,
Too long, by int'rest and chicane deceiv'd,
Doctrines, from fancy and tradition bred,
Have ye as truths of stamp divine believ'd.
Now, by our new philosophy repriev'd
From law's restraint and stern religion's sway,
Man shall behold his proper rights retriev'd:
Illumination shall her torch display,
Her influence spread, and strike our tyrants with dismay.
Vol. ii. p. 101.

" Mark her behest. Each generation, free,
And unconfin'd, must for itself debate,
Must on its laws and government agree.
She teaches too enlighten'd man to hate
The poor distinctions which have stamp'd him great,
By her illumination taught to think,
He scorns on ancestorial pride to wait;
He sees the artificial noble sink,
And to a dwarf before the natural noble shrink.

" The people's majesty let tyrants know:
Yon despot from his seat usurp'd impel,
And pluck the glitt'ring circlet from his brow.
Him let philosophy exulting tell,
It is not we who 'gainst the laws rebel,
But 'tis that laws our inborn vigour cramp!
Let your free souls with kindling ardour swell;
Let no weak feelings your exertions damp;
In characters of blood your new dominion stamp.

" Seize on the church's rich and wide domain,
Whence to luxurious priests the treasures spring,
Which aid them o'er men's consciences to reign.
The tythes, which from your callous hands they wring,
Resume, or to the gen'ral coffers bring.
New-model and re-organise the realm:
Each his own ruler, ev'ry man a king,
Let individual feelings guide the helm,
Abolish ranks, and all distinctions vain o'erwhelm."
Vol. ii. p. 103.

Richard follows the demagogue, and is as triumphant in eloquence as in arms. The following is a part of his reply:

" Ere yet, by this declaimer's arts misled,
You rashly stoop to his insidious lure,
And ruin's path beyond redemption tread,
Attend! it well behoves you to be sure,
Where tend his views and arguments impure.
Like Sodom's fruit, with outward beauty grac'd,
They captivate the eye, the soul allure,
While all within the tempting rind encas'd
Is bitter and austere, disgusting to the taste. Vol. ii. p. 104.

" In what consist those new, those equal, rights,
To which the demagogue, with boastful scorn,
My free and envied Englishmen invites?
Is it that men with equal pow'rs are born?
That none superior faculties adorn?
Do not to all far diff'rent gifts belong?
While some their limited endowments mourn,
Others, with minds and corp'ral functions strong,
To high distinction rise, and soar above the throng.

" Or would he in exact proportions class
Our island's substance, so that each might take
His due allotment from the gen'ral mass?
Let us a moment his arrangement make:
The unsubstantial bubble soon will break.
Can his high pleasure Nature's course restrain?
Would not each birth the baseless fabric shake?
How could each child its just proportion gain,
How, when no more remain'd, his equal right obtain?

Vol. ii. p. 106.

" Nor will the proposition prove more true,
That with the people sov'reignty resides.
How shall ye curb, amid these monarchs new,
The talent which inferior judgment guides?
Int'rest in all societies divides
The gen'ral will, dominion all would gain,
And oft in russet frock ambition hides:
Make them all kings, what magic can restrain
Their views discordant, or their sep'rate pow'r maintain?

Vol. ii. p. 108.

" No laws, he said, posterity can bind,
Or those who have not by their votes concurr'd;
That, as by nature all are unconfin'd,
Each generation must in turn be heard,
And each successive sanction be preferr'd.
If so, his grand compact, his suffrage full,
Compels him to the consequence absurd,
That this supreme, unalterable rule,
Each new-born babe may change, may frustrate, or annul.

Vol. ii. p. 109.

" Then think in time, and scorn their base pretence;
Exert those feelings you so oft have shewn,
That steady loyalty, that sterling sense,
By which the English character is known.
Believe and make your country's cause your own:
Shew to these demagogues in treason bold,
You love your laws, your altars, and your throne;
That, firm and loyal, you will ne'er behold
Your country to her foes by home-bred traitors sold."

'Thus spoke the gallant king. In ev'ry breast,
Deep sank his sage and eloquent discourse:
Enlighten'd by the truth, the crow'd confess'd
Its potent influence and resistless force.
Far otherwise the fiends: with wild concourse
Tumultuously they rush'd, and, as they rais'd
Their sanguinary shout and outcry hoarse,
Harsh thunders roll'd around, blue light'nings blaz'd,
And shook the earth, as if by dire portents amaz'd.'

Vol. ii. p. 110.

The dæmons are of course discomfited, and take their flight in despair; but, prior to their vanishing, the monarch is addressed by False Philosophy, who curses the fate which thus compels them to yield to the virtuous energies of a mortal, but exults in the prospect that a period shall arise, obviously alluding to the present times, when their arts and intrigues will prove more successful.

"Then, arm'd with terror and distain'd with blood,
My vengeful hand shall rule degen'rate Gaul,
And spread my far-exterminating flood.
Then, when my spells the shrinking soul appal,
Myriads of rebels shall obey my call,
Wide shall my fatal standard be unfurl'd:
Whate'er religion sacred held shall fall,
From regal state her monarch shall be hurl'd,
And philosophic mobs shall rule the bleeding world.

"Then, when amid the universal wreck
Of thrones, of altars, principles, and laws,
A faithless nation follows at my beck;
Then, when victorious hell distends her jaws,
And sends forth hosts to aid our ruthless cause,
Let England tremble! Some shall then be found,
Who here shall greet my doctrines with applause,
Whose felon-daggers shall their country wound,
Whose hands my baleful tree shall plant on English ground.

"Then shall new Baldocks, new Fitz-Osberts, rise,
Pervert the weak, with crouds tumultuous join,
And, their fell purpose scorning to disguise,
Associations of rebellion sign,
And openly with England's foes combine.
Then horror far shall spread and wild dismay,
While well matur'd shall flourish my design,
While the mad people law shall disobey,
Contemn the voice of God, and mock their sov'reign's sway.

"These and worse ills await thy menac'd realm,
Unless, what fate will scarce to hope allow,
Some honest statesman then shall guide the helm;
Who, while his breast with youthful zeal shall glow,
Shall tear the mask from frenzied faction's brow,

Shall boldly meet the philosophic herd,
Shall, with an eloquence unrivall'd, shew
How weak their plea, their tenets how absurd,
And call on Albion's sons the patriot sword to gird.

" Then, should indeed this prodigy appear,
In vain would False Philosophy disclose
Her bloody presence, or her banner rear:
Europe, exhausted by convulsive throes,
Redeem'd by him, from slaughter would repose;
While envied England, blest with pow'r and fame,
Would rise superior to confed'rate foes,
Peace and good-will tow'rds all mankind proclaim,
And high in glory's fane record her guardian's name!"

Vol. ii. p. 113.

The '*prodigy*' of this '*honest statesman*' has not yet, however, made his appearance, if we may judge from the present state of the country. It is obvious that the ex-minister is referred to; but, unfortunately for the poet, the compliment is as ill-timed as Mr. Pybus's address was to the late emperor Paul. If this poem should ever reach a second edition,—and from the intrinsic merit of the greater part of it we sincerely hope it will, and that very speedily,—we would advise a very large portion of this book to be wholly omitted. It is equally degrading to the poet and his hero.

We should naturally have expected that the poem would now have closed with the triumphant entrance of the English monarch into his own metropolis, and the restoration of peace and happiness to his subjects. But sir B. Burges has thought otherwise;—an expedition is yet to be fitted out against France, and Philip is to be chastised for his invasion of Normandy. In historic fact, this event, however, preceded the subjugation of the rebels at home; and what real benefit accrues from this violent anachronism we are at a loss to determine. We think, if the author had represented Richard as hastening with all speed, immediately on his liberation at Worms, to punish the perfidy of the king of France in Normandy, had next assigned him a signal vengeance upon the equally perfidious and avaricious Henry, and had finally, in unison with the page of history itself, conducted him, covered with foreign laurels, to his own country, by one decisive action to triumph over the rebellious host of Fitz-Osbert, he would have produced a far better, a more concentrated, and dignified whole, than by leaving him, though still victorious, in Normandy when the poem closes.

(To be continued.)

ART. II.—*Transactions of a Society for the Improvement of Medical and Chirurgical Knowledge. Illustrated with Copper-Plates. Vol. II. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards.* Johnson. 1800.

THE first volume of this collection we noticed, with particular marks of approbation, as far backward as our Xth volume, New Arr. p. 315. So distant is the present successor from its precursor. We were pleased with it from its intrinsic merit, and from its containing the matured sentiments of veterans in the science, instead of the eager, and frequently injudicious, effusions of youth, anxious to raise a name or to acquire practice. We do not think, however, that the volume before us follows the former with equal steps; but it is, nevertheless, a truly respectable publication, and comprises many valuable and useful articles. These we shall notice in their order.

'I. Observations on the Case of a Woman who died with a Fetus in the Fallopian Tube. By John Clarke, M. D.'

We scarcely find any new fact established by this dissection; but what was formerly conceived is abundantly confirmed. The fetus will undoubtedly increase in any living cavity where its vessels can unite with those which convey blood that has been exposed to the atmosphere. The enlargement of the uterus does not appear owing to distension, nor its protrusive efforts to its admitting no farther increase; since, when the fetus was in a cavity formed by the Fallopian tube, the uterus increased in bulk, and at the end of nine months exerted its usual powers. About this time, too, it is probable the child died. The woman was not, during her pregnancy, sensible of any thing peculiar in her situation; and the corpse of the child produced the effects of any other mass of dead matter: the softer parts were absorbed, and the harder excited ulceration, under which the mother sunk. The sac of the Fallopian tube is not thick, like that of the uterus, and Dr. Clarke thinks that many supposed ventral conceptions proceed from a rupture of an ovarian sac. The plate illustrating this case is very indifferently executed, and scarcely elucidates the verbal description,—a censure that may be extended, without exception, to all the engravings of the present volume.

'II. Account of a Case in which Death was brought on by a Hæmorrhage from the Liver. By G. Blane, M.D. F.R.S.'

The case before us is singular. Effusions had taken place in the substance of the liver, previous to the rupture of the tunics, which occasioned death, by the profluvium of the blood into the cavity of the abdomen. The profluvium was apparently owing to a want of resistance, and perhaps in consequence of a scrofulous habit. One of the kidneys was wholly destroyed, without the occurrence of any urinary affection. This, however, is not uncommon.

'III. An Account of the Croup, as it appeared in the Town and Neighbourhood of Chesham, in Buckinghamshire, in the Years 1793 and 1794, by Henry Rumsey, Surgeon at Chesham. Communicated by Dr. Clarke.'

Children from one to fourteen years were affected with this disease. It appeared inflammatory, and began usually with symptoms of catarrh. Our author found the disorder unmanageable, but thought that calomel was of service; though its success was by no means striking, and was rather observable towards the decline of the epidemic, when, as Mr. Rumsey asserts with great candour, the disease was less severe. The effusion he justly supposes to proceed from exhalation; and copious bleeding, at the earliest period, was sometimes effectual. Emetics procured only a temporary relief.

'IV. The Case of a young Woman who poisoned herself in the first Month of her Pregnancy. By Thomas Ogle, Surgeon. To which is added, an Account of the Appearances after Death, by the late John Hunter. Communicated to the Society by Everard Home.'

This case, with the dissection, is highly important. The appearances we shall transcribe.

'The cervix uteri and os tincæ were of their natural size; but the body, or that portion of the uterus next the fundus, was a little enlarged, and more prominent externally in the middle. The spermatic vessels were also enlarged.

'On cutting into the substance of the uterus, it had more of a laminated structure than in the unimpregnated state: this appearance of lamellæ appeared upon examination to be formed by veins somewhat enlarged, compressed, and transversely divided. The uterus was unusually soft in texture, and terminated on the internal surface in a pulpy substance.

'The blood vessels of the uterus passed into and ramified upon this pulpy substance, which was continued across at the cervix uteri, so as to make the cavity of the uterus a circumscribed bag; and at this part the pulpy substance was so thin as to resemble the retina.

'This cavity had a smooth but irregular internal surface, and the pulpy substance upon which it was formed was evidently blood coagulated and varied in its thickness in different parts. Upon a longitudinal section of the uterus, the posterior part of the coagulum, which was the thickest, was nearly half an inch; where it terminated towards the cervix it was pendulous and unattached. There were also several loose processes, all turned towards the cervix, one of them very thin, as broad as a silver penny, and only attached by one edge to the fundus near the opening of the right Fallopian tube.

'On slitting open the Fallopian tubes, the coagulum was found to pass some way into them, and to extend more than half an inch on the left side which had the corpus luteum. The coagulum was thickest at the orifice of the tube, and there adhered to the inner surface for the eighth part of an inch; beyond which it became

smaller and terminated in a point. In the left tube the coagulum was in two places coiled or folded upon itself, as if thrown back by the action of the tube. The portions of the coagulum at the orifices of the tubes were hollow.

'When the inner surface of the cavity of the uterus was examined with a magnifying glass, it was found extremely vascular, and dotted with innumerable whitish spots, too small to be seen by the naked eye.

'In the examination of this uterus and Fallopian tubes, as Mr. Hunter's chief object was the detection of the embryo, no precaution was omitted which could be devised to prevent it from being overlooked or destroyed.

'The uterus was opened in a bason of clear water, the incision was conducted with great circumspection, and very slowly continued till the whole of the cavity was exposed. Every part of the internal surface was minutely examined with magnifying glasses, but, in no situation, was there any thing resembling an embryo to be found.

'The presence of a corpus luteum, the enlargement of the uterus, the newly-formed vascular membrane or decidua lining the cavity, and the history of the case, sufficiently prove conception to have taken place; and the embryo being no where detected by an examination so accurate, and conducted by an anatomist so skilful in minute investigation, would induce a belief that the fetus had not been sufficiently advanced to take on a regular form.' P. 66.

'V. An Account of a Case of Diabetes, with an Examination of the Appearances after Death. By M. Baillie, M. D. F.R.S.'

This case occurred before the publication of Dr. Rollo's work, and the remedies recommended by that author were, of course, not tried: the common ones were found useless. On dissection no change, truly to be denominated morbid, appeared. Dr. Baillie next examines the opinions of Mead, Dobson, Cullen, and Darwin, on the cause of the disease, and finds each of them untenable. He offers, however, no theory of his own. In the course of this investigation he mentions two instances in which he tasted the chyle of dogs, and which he did not find sweet, even when fed on vegetable food. We record with pleasure the opinion of so celebrated an anatomist, in confirmation of our opinion that a retrograde motion of the fluids, in any part of the absorbent system, is neither supported by reason nor the structure of the vessels.

'VI. An Account of two Cases, shewing the Existence of the Small-pox and the Measles in the same Person at the same Time. And an Account of a Case of Ague in a Child in Utero. By P. Russel, M. D. F. R. S.'

In this epidemic the two diseases often occurred together, and it was indifferent which first attacked the patient, since it did not prevent the other, a fact which strongly militates against a late fashionable doctrine of 'the vessels assuming diseased action,' which has always been regarded by ourselves as unintelligible

jargon. The case of the ague affecting a child in utero is peculiarly curious, and the fact seems to be sufficiently established.

'VII. Cases and Observations on Strangulated Hernia. By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S. &c.'

The period at which the operation for a strangulated hernia can be no longer delayed or dispensed with has not yet been properly ascertained. Mr. Home, to establish a more certain criterion than any hitherto advanced, communicates several cases to the society. The conclusions we ought not to abridge.

'From these cases we learn that the symptoms correspond with the state of the intestine. When the stricture is only sufficient to compress the intestine, and to prevent the contents from passing through the strangulated part, there is vomiting, hickup, thirst, and general uneasiness, which symptoms come on some hours after the protrusion of the gut, and are very slow in their increase.

'When the stricture is in so great a degree as to produce inflammation on the compressed part of the gut, the symptoms come on immediately; the vomiting does not cease upon the stomach discharging its contents, but the retchings continue: there is a considerable tenderness over the whole belly, the pulse is quick and very small, and the spirits of the patient are much depressed. These symptoms are more or less violent, and their progress is more or less rapid, in proportion to the degree of the inflammation. If it only produces adhesions, the pulse is less contracted, there is less tenderness over the abdomen, and less depression of spirits.

'When the stricture is so tight as to obstruct the circulation of the blood in the part, all these symptoms are met with in the greatest degree of violence; an unusual coldness is felt over the surface of the body, and mortification takes place in the strangulated portion of the intestine.

'As in all the cases which I have stated there was an opportunity both of tracing the symptoms and examining the state of the intestine, the conclusions which have been drawn are the more to be depended on; and, should they be confirmed by future observations, they will assist us considerably in judging of the expediency of performing the operation at an earlier period in some cases than in others. I am induced to believe that they are strongly in favour of immediate operation in cases which are in general thought to admit of delay.

'The femoral rupture, on account of the strength of Poupart's ligament, will be more liable to have the parts compressed in a greater degree, and consequently to be more violently affected by inflammation.

'In such cases the operation should be sooner performed; whereas, on the contrary, surgeons have been more inclined to delay it, from the difficulty and danger arising from the parts which are liable to be hurt in performing the operation.

'Constitutions are very differently affected by the same local mischief; some patients recover after mortification has taken place in the portion of strangulated intestine, while others sink under a much less violent degree of inflammation; it is therefore in general right, even in the most hopeless cases, to perform the operation. There is, how-

ever, one symptom that comes on in the last stage of this disease, which appears to be the immediate forerunner of death, and after it has taken place I apprehend the operation will always prove ineffectual. This is a general coldness, attended with moisture over the surface of the body; it is, to the feel, even colder than the skin of the same person when dead; but the real degree of cold (I believe) has never been measured by a thermometer.'

'In every case I have met with, in which this symptom had taken place, the patient died; in some the operation was performed, in others it was not; but in all of them the patients continued to sink gradually, and in less than twenty-four hours expired.' P. 114.

'VIII. A fatal Case of Hernia of some of the Abdominal Viscera strangulated in the Cavity of the Thorax. By John Clarke, M. D.'

The protrusion of the intestines through the diaphragm has scarcely ever been observed, except in children; though the author has selected one instance from Ambrose Paré where the opening through which the colon passed was made by a sharp instrument. We are by no means certain that the present hernia *(sit venia verbo)* was not owing to the concussion from the fall by which the ribs were fractured twelve months before, as the previous symptoms were dyspeptic only. The part of the intestine forced into the thorax, through an 'aperture in the diaphragm on the left side, about three inches from the ribs, and more forward than the natural opening for the passage of the œsophagus,' was the colon: the symptoms were those of strangulation, and the appearances, on dissection, those of inflammation and its consequences.

'IX. On the Effect of the pure fixt Alkalies, and of Lime Water, in several Complaints. By G. Blane, M. D. F. R. S. &c.'

This article does not seem very important. The use of lime water, in urinary complaints, is well known; and Dr. Blane adds to the common list, strangury, supposing that, in every instance, it acts in destroying what later chemists have styled the uric acid. Another complaint, for which alkalies and lime water are recommended by Dr. Blane, is indigestion, in which he thinks they operate on the gastric acid; and he finds the natron greatly superior to lime water or the kali. In chronic dysenteries of the lienteric kind, lime water is said to be useful; and, in cutaneous complaints, particularly those affecting the face, called gutta rosea, it is, in our author's opinion, often successful. In this last advice Dr. Blane seems to have been preceded by Dr. Willan, who has extended somewhat farther the recommendation of alkalies in diseases of the skin.

'X. An Account of a singular Disease in the great Intestines. By M. Baillie, M. D. F. R. S.'

In this very singular instance a portion of the intestine was separated by sphacelus, and discharged; but, unfortunately, per-

mission to open the body could not be obtained. The part discharged was a segment of the colon. We well remember the history of a case in which a part of the intestine, now in Dr. Hunter's collection, was in like manner discharged. The account occurs, we believe, in the Edinburgh Medical Essays; the dissection is described in another collection, which, for the present, has escaped us.

'XI. An Account of an uncommon Tumour, formed in one of the Axillary Nerves. By E. Home, Esq. F. R. S.'

These peculiar tumours, formed probably in the substance of the nerve, have never been very clearly or distinctly noticed. The nervous tumour appears to be free within the tunic, *except at the extremities:* in the centre is the resemblance of serpentine nervous fibres running in the course of the nerve, separated from each other by the substance of the tumour, which, in the part exterior to the fibres, has something of a radiated structure.

'From these cases we are enabled to ascertain the symptoms peculiar to tumours in the substance of nerves, and to form a judgment respecting the mode of removing them.

'They may be distinguished from other tumours by a pain which is felt in the direction of the tumour, and in the part beyond it, even at the time when the tumour itself is moveable laterally in the surrounding parts. They may be also distinguished by the motion of the tumour, being chiefly in a lateral direction, but not in the direction of the nerve to any extent; and by the attempt to produce this longitudinal motion being attended with considerable pain.

'In the removal of such tumours, we find that so far as we are justified in drawing conclusions from two instances, the taking away three inches of a nerve is productive of less violent effects than are occasioned by inflammation and suppuration in the substance of the nerve for an equal extent.

'The inflammation of a nerve, like that of a tendon, appears to affect the general system in a greater degree than would be expected by a man unacquainted with pathology, from the little severity of the symptoms, or sensation in the part affected.' P. 162.

'XII. On the Use of the Application of Gastric Juice to Sores. By John Harness, M. D.'

These instances contribute to establish the utility of an application often tried, and, by many surgeons, warmly recommended.

'XIII. The Case of a Person who was shot through the Lungs and survived for thirty-two Years; with an Account of the Appearance of the Contents of the Thorax after Death. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.'

Few instances of this kind can occur; and it is fortunate when an experienced anatomist meets with them. The course of the ball was through the upper lobe of both lungs, about two inches and a half from their highest part; the whole of the lungs above was filled with serum; and the adhesive inflammation had consolidated

not only the vesicles of the lungs, but the branches of the trachæa connected with them. The symptoms, during thirty-two years, connected with the wound, were chiefly a tendency to inflammation of the lungs on catching cold, an irritable state of these organs, and occasionally violent pain.

'XIV. An Account of the Case of a Man who had no Evacuation from the Bowels for nearly fifteen Weeks before his Death. By M. Baillie, M. D. F. R. S.'

In this singular case, where evacuation was impeded by a very close stricture at the lower part of the sigmoid flexure of the colon, the great intestines were larger from an accumulation of their contents, and their muscular coat stronger from increased action: the feces resembled mortar, and, in consequence of being confined from the air, not more fetid than usual. The appetite continued till within a fortnight of the patient's death; and he at last died from weakness and atrophy.

'XV. A Case of Rupture of the Uterus, from which the Woman recovered. By Thomas Haden, Surgeon, at Derby; communicated by Dr. Clarke.'

In this case the rupture was not ascertained by examination, though all the usual symptoms were observable except one, and that a very important and essential symptom—viz. the retraction of the child, which was delivered by the forceps. On the whole, we strongly suspect that the uterus was *not* ruptured.

'XVI. History of some Cases of Disease in the Brain, with an Account of the Appearances upon Examination after Death, and some general Observations on Complaints of the Head. By Gilbert Blane, M. D. F. R. S.'

These cases are singular and curious, particularly the first, where the disease consisted in an aneurism of the carotid arteries, *within* the brain. A tumour found in the situation of the pineal gland is not less so. It pressed downwards on the cerebellum, and produced the most excruciating pains, terminating in delirium: But the whole case is truly instructive and should be read at large. As the tumour was not connected with the brain in the part where the pineal gland is usually situated, our author does not think it to have been an increase of that organ, but supposes the gland to have been destroyed by it. Many valuable remarks on the diseases of the brain are interspersed in this paper, particularly one which experience supports, viz. that, when the functions of the brain are injured by organic affections of the containing parts, the disease is not constant. The intellectual functions are often unaffected, and become diseased only in consequence of a more rapid circulation, increased agitation of mind, or some other occasional cause.

'XVII. Observations on Erysipelas. By William Charles Wells, M. D. F. R. S.'

Dr. Wells, in this article, adduces a variety of satisfactory

evidence to prove that erysipelas is infectious. We have also often seen it so. The instance recorded of its proving infectious in the Edinburgh Infirmary we ourselves witnessed. Dr. Wells seems to think large doses of the Peruvian bark highly useful; it is certainly seldom an inflammatory disease, except in warm climates; and even the delirium attending is not in consequence of inflammation.

'XVIII. Observations on the Management of Cases in which the Face of the Child presents towards the Os Pubis. By John Clarke, M. D.'

The management recommended in the very difficult situation mentioned in the title is very clear and simple. The mode of affecting the change is to introduce one or two fingers between the side of the head near the coronal suture and the symphysis pubis, pressing steadily against the parietal or frontal bone, during a pain. The head yields in this way to the pressure, till the occiput is brought to the groin, when the rest may be left to nature with perfect safety.

'XIX. Additional Cases to illustrate Mr. Hunter's Method of performing the Operation for the Cure of the Popliteal Aneurism. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.'

These additional cases are clearly related, and strongly point out the propriety of Mr. Hunter's method of performing the operation.

'XX. The Case of Paunchoo, an Inhabitant of the Village of Gundassee, in Pergunnah Humnabad, and Province of Tipe-rah, Bengal. By John Corse, Esq. Communicated by Dr. Baillie.'

In this singular case the scrotum and penis were involved in a steatomatous tumour.

'XXI. An instance of the entire Want of Hair in the Human Body. Communicated by W. C. Wells, M. D. F. R. S.'

The person whose extraordinary situation is described had the usual appearances of hair, which gradually fell off, without pain, inconvenience, or any cutaneous eruption, and without any cause, so far as the author's or the patient's observations extended.

'XXII. History of a Case of Aneurisms cured by a natural Process. By John Major Wilson, House Surgeon to the Westminster Hospital. Communicated by Dr. Clarke.'

That almost every complaint may be remedied by the unassisted powers of nature will be readily admitted; yet perhaps each attentive practitioner would be inclined to except from the number aneurisms, particularly those of the lower extremities. Accident, however, has supplied a curious instance of relief, even in this case. A large aneurism in the ham of the *right* leg was followed by two others, higher up in the course of the femoral artery, *in the left* limb. The former bursted and discharged much blood; when the two others, which had appeared

to unite, grew gradually less, diminished in pain, and lost their pulsation. The wound healed, and the man recovered. The right leg is shorter than the other, on account of the loss of substance, but is the most serviceable limb. The other is weak and somewhat benumbed; but the recovery is, on the whole, surprising. The alteration in the tumours of the left leg were evidently owing to the discharge of blood from the aneurismal tumour in the right: and it might lead to the consideration, whether, when there is an aneurismal disposition, an aneurismal sac in the extremities may not be opened, regulating the discharge by a tourniquet, to deplete quickly and effectually the arterial system, preserving the whole body, at the same time, in the coolest state, and at absolute rest.

'XXIII. Experiments and Observations on the Growth of Bones, from the Papers of the late Mr. Hunter. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.'

Mr. Hunter's doctrine respecting the growth of bones is well known; and this paper is intended chiefly to show that the opinion adopted by Dr. Monro from Du Hamel is not consistent with the process particularly described in Mr. Hunter's experiments, and that Mr. Hunter was acquainted with the power of the absorbents to act on the solids of the body prior to Dr. Monro. We wish this trifling dispute had not occupied the place of better information in the valuable collection before us.

'XXIV. A Case of an Extra-Uterine Fœtus discharged by the Rectum. By Mr. Mainwaring, Apothecary. Communicated by Dr. Baillie.'

The conception seems, in the present instance, to have been extra-uterine; and the fetus, falling down into the cavity of the pelvis, found, in consequence of pressure and suppuration, a passage into the rectum. The poor woman, after long sufferings, fortunately recovered.

'XXV. A Case of Pregnancy, in which the Ovum had become diseased, and was entirely filled with small Hydatids. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.'

Hydatids occur, as is well known, in the placenta and ovaria: in this instance the increase of the hydatids seems to have destroyed the fetus, unless the fetus be itself composed of hydatids. In this last sentence we shall scarcely be conceived to be serious; but a late ingenious theorist, who has given such extensive powers to his animated male and female filaments, may, from a perusal of this paper, adopt perhaps the system of an hydatid. We know that the latter is an animal, and is more likely than plants to possess perceptivity and volition. The advantages of the hydatid system are manifold!

'XXVI. Case of Strangulated Hernia, where the Operation succeeded after the Obstruction had continued eight Days. By

Henry Fryer, Surgeon, at Stamford. Communicated by Dr. Clarke.'

This case is of importance, as it shows that the last attempt to relieve, by an operation, though long delayed, may still succeed.

'XXVII. An Account of a singular Disease in the upper Maxillary Sinus. By John Abernethy, F.R.S. Communicated by Dr. Baillie.'

The disease is indeed singular. A fungus in the antrum had produced an exostosis; but, in consequence of fever, the fungus sloughed away, though the disease in the maxillary bone continued to increase. The size is considerable, and too great to admit of any attempts to remove it.

'XXVIII. Some Observations upon the Combination of Medicines. By George Fordyce, M.D. F.R.S.'

We have often had occasion to remark, that, in simplifying formulæ, we have been misled, *specie recti*, and we have often relinquished considerable advantages by rejecting the more compound forms, though the ingredients of these were often unreasonably numerous. We have great satisfaction in finding this opinion confirmed by the authority of Dr. Fordyce, who has pursued this subject very minutely, in which we could scarcely follow him more concisely than by copying his own words. Even the experienced physician will find advantage in perusing the whole. His improved eccoprotic formula we shall extract.

'I have already remarked that purgatives are different in quality from one another, and that their mixture may be useful in producing different effects; but where the object is simply that they should act as laxatives, by increasing the peristaltic motion of the intestines, several remedies being mixed together will be more efficacious, and act without giving so much pain to the patient as any one of them singly. Indeed, since I conceived the idea of laying this paper before the society, I have found, I think, a better mixture of laxatives than any in the Pharmacopœia of the London College, where the peristaltic motion only of the intestines is wished to be increased; to wit, five parts of aloes, three parts of sagapenum, two parts of gamboge, one part of distilled oil of camomile, two parts of gum-arabic, which is necessary to give a consistency, so that they may be made into pills with sufficient quantity of the syrup of the spina cervina. From six to ten grains of this mass operate gently without giving pain in most cases; colocynthida, which has been commonly used in similar compositions, is apt to give pain, without producing so certain an effect.' P. 332.

What our author has observed respecting the union of bitters merits particular attention.

'Bitter medicines, which tend to strengthen the system, such as the bark of the cinchona, several species of the artemisia of Linnæus (who, it may be observed, has constantly endeavoured to mislead

students in medicine, by taking the name of the genus from the species which has the least effect, or a dissimilar effect, from the greatest number of the species in it), as absinthium, absinthium maritimum, &c. which have been more commonly used, and have effects different from artemisia; several species of carduus, camomile, the rinds of fruits of the orange kind; the gentians, and many others, as far as my observation has gone, sit easier on the stomach, and tend more to strengthen the system when mixed together than when any one of them is employed singly. Whether the bitter juice contained in all these plants is the same substance, as the sugar and indigo contained in many plants are the same, or whether it be that the essential oils in these various plants containing a bitter juice are different, certain it is that they tend to strengthen the system more when mixed together, than when any one of them is employed singly. Preparations of iron, given in small doses, tend to strengthen the system, and were very often employed for this purpose before the cinchona came into use. Since that time they have been less in practice, though certainly rather from the fashion of medicine than that they are not useful; but there is a degree of stimulus in all of them which renders them too apt to occasion frequency of the pulse, and therefore, as far as I can judge, it is better to give them at the same time with such bitter medicines as are strengthening, though they will not well bear to be mixed with them, as they tend to coagulate and destroy the bitter juice of the vegetable. The bark of the cinchona, as well as other bitter juices of vegetables of a similar kind; likewise preparations of iron, zinc, copper, and tin; have a power of preventing many applications made to the body from exerting so considerable an effect as they otherwise would have done if these medicines had not been exhibited; which effect is one among others that has been expressed by saying that they diminish the irritability of the body. I have not observed that a mixture of any two of these medicines is of any use in producing this effect: For example, the bark of the cinchona has a power of preventing the cause of the return of an intermitting fever from re-producing the disease; but I have never observed that mixing preparations of zinc, iron, or copper, or any bitter, increased the power of the bark of the cinchona, or that the bark of the cinchona increased the power of any of these medicines in preventing the return of an intermitting fever.

'Many astringent medicines are found in vegetables. There is some doubt whether it is not the same astringent juice which is found in all of them, as most of them are coagulable by many metallic and aluminous salts. Be this as it may, the mixture of several different vegetable astringent substances, as far as my experience goes, seems to be much better than giving one of them singly, whether it be to check secretions (as purgings) in cases where it is proper to employ astringents for that purpose, or in hæmorrhage, in cases where astringents may be employed for the purpose of stopping them. It is better, for example, to employ tormentil, madder, simarouba, logwood, together, to stop a purging that arises from weakness and laxity of the intestines, than to employ any one of them by itself. In a hæmorrhage, where a disposition to inflammation and a flow of blood upon the part have been taken off, or when neither exists in the first

part of the disease, it is better to join the astringency of the petals of red roses to that of vitriolic acid and alum than to employ any of these astringents singly.' P. 324.

Perhaps Linnæus may be properly defended from Dr. Fordyce's accusation, by remarking that he has been unusually anxious to preserve the pharmaceutical appellation in the species, by which he *avoids* misleading the student. Had he employed it in the genera, there would have been danger from the student's supposing that every species was of a similar nature; and such is the artificial structure of genera in many instances, that the greatest inconvenience would have arisen.

'XXIX. The Operation of puncturing the Bladder above the Pubis and through the Rectum; illustrated by Cases. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.'

These cases were successful, and of importance, as the instances of this operation are very rare. Our author prefers the cylindrical to the flattened canula.

On the whole we are much pleased with this collection, and could wish the successive volumes to make a more rapid appearance. If, however, the substance be valuable, we should be contented to wait—the fungus which springs up in a night decays before the ensuing day is at an end.

ART. III.—*The History of the Campaigns of* 1796, 1797, 1798, *and* 1799, *in Germany, Italy, and Switzerland. Translated from the French.* 4 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 2*l.* 2*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

THE calamities which have desolated Europe for the last ten years rend asunder the feeling heart, and we are thoroughly tired of beholding new descriptions of blood and slaughter. The lives squandered, the sums expended, the talents employed, in the art of destruction, are a severe reflexion on the supposed civilisation of the world: and when we contemplate the effects that might be produced by the same powers, if directed to the cultivation, improvement, and ornament of a country, we feel confounded at the disgraceful follies of our common species. For man to boast of his reason when he makes so ill a use of it aggravates his fault, and he has only to reflect seriously on the campaigns before us to be awakened to contrition, and to lament that he should thus be controuled by his evil passions. Yet why should we endeavour to excite these feelings when a work, full of martial enterprise and military glory, is put into our hands? Should we not rather aim to encourage the youthful hero to similar achievements, to implant in his mind a noble ambition to elevate himself in the world, and become celebrated for the splendour of his exploits. We

would indeed, if we could separate, as well as the present writer has done, the art from its effects, if we could contemplate marches, counter-marches, attacks, retreats, the burning of towns and storming of cities, with the same *sang froid* as a by-stander does the different moves in a game at chess; if the cries of the wounded, the bloody sword of the assassin, the vociferation of the victors, the infernal perspective of a field of battle, did not, though carefully kept out of our sight by the author before us, strenuously force themselves on our recollection.

Yet, in spite of all our moral reflexions, war will continue to desolate the earth; and it may be necessary for those who detest it most to learn the art by which they may be prepared for their own defence. In this case, and indeed to all engaged in the science of hostilities, these volumes will be eminently useful: the campaigns which they describe are superlatively distinguished by the grandeur of the plans projected, the dispositions of the forces employed, the variety of fortunes exhibited, and the extent of country acted upon. A confederacy of warlike nations, with the best disciplined troops, under the most skilful commanders, supplied with unbounded stores of money and provisions, generally supposed to be the sinews of war, was baffled by an individual state, whose finances were destroyed, whose military discipline was lost, whose armies were without pay, without provisions, without clothes, and whose troops were led on by post-boys, attorneys' clerks, pastry-cooks, and printers' devils. On one side was every thing which birth, fortune, education, wealth, could procure or exhibit;—on the other, there was only the enthusiasm of liberty, which allowed talents to make their way from the ranks to the supreme command.

The contest was in every respect extraordinary, as well in the end to be obtained as in the means to accomplish or defeat it; and it is difficult to write on events of merely a military nature with perfect impartiality. The author professes it; but we must not be too rigid in our expectation. If the French seldom receive any praise, they must be contented with the victories they obtained;—and as the confederates have been such great losers, we should allow them the little compensation to admit that judges of military merit still bestow encomiums both on their plans and the officers by whom they were executed.

Setting aside, then, the predilection of our author to praise the Austrians and abuse the French, we have been much gratified by his military remarks on the actions that occurred, as they are delineated with great skill and arrangement. His knowledge of the military art is considerable, and his information seems to have been derived from the best sources which one side could afford—while, on the other side, it is seldom remarkably deficient. The combats themselves we shall not fight

over again; but our readers may form an adequate idea of our author's talents for describing them from a few extracts. The retreat of Jourdan, contrasted with that of Moreau, affords ample fund of instruction to every one not contented with the common routine of military tactics, or the duty of a parade. On the former, the writer gives us his remarks in the following manner:

'This campaign of Jourdan's proved, that if the valour of the soldiers, and the boldness of their generals, are sufficient to render an army victorious, the only hope of safety, in case of a defeat, must be placed in the passive obedience of the troops, in the regular subordination of the officers, in the ability of the generals, and in the solid organization of all its parts. It was to the want of all these circumstances that Jourdan owed the rapid abandonment of his conquests, and the destruction of his army. Two great defeats would not have occasioned a loss equal to that which he sustained by the want of discipline among his soldiers, by the spirit of independence among his generals, and of disobedience among his subaltern officers. The great irregularity in the distribution of provisions, and the extreme disorder which reigned in the interior government of his army, were more fatal to him than the sword of the Austrians. They produced disobedience and discouragement among the soldiery, caused a considerable desertion, and obliged the different corps to follow their own discretion, in directing their retreat to whatever places could provide them the subsistence which they were so much in want of. A total disunion in the motions and positions of the whole army was the consequence, which rendered it impossible to oppose a victorious, active, and well-regulated force. The excessive contributions, extortions, and outrages exercised upon the inhabitants of the conquered countries, excited in them the most violent animosity, which shewed itself evidently, from the very beginning of the French disasters. The disorder of their retreat, the plunder and violence with which it was marked, gave the Franconian peasants, at the same time, new causes of resentment, and a favourable opportunity of revenging themselves. The bad military and political conduct of the French occasioned the loss, not only of their conquests, but likewise of the partizans they had in Germany. When conquerors they were detested; when conquered, they were despised.' Vol. i. p. 79.

Moreau's retreat, if he had not been a Frenchman, must have excited the utmost degree of admiration in our author; but, in spite of himself, he is compelled to acknowledge that

'No one can deny that he made a most able retreat. His successes from the 24th of June, (the period at which he passed the Rhine at Kehl,) till his entrance into Bavaria, resulting almost necessarily from the great superiority of his forces, were not decisive of his military talents. But his retreat has left no room to doubt of his abilities, and ranks him amongst distinguished generals. Indeed, every one must acknowledge that he conducted his army with infi-

nite skill in the midst of the Austrian corps which surrounded him, and that he chose well his opportunities to attack and defeat them one after another. The movement which he made against M. de Latour was well combined, and it was to the success of this manœuvre that he owed that of his retreat, which was judicious and methodical. He saved his sick, his wounded, his artillery, and his baggage.

'However able the conduct of general Moreau may have been, professionally speaking, it presents however many errors, which have been partly pointed out in the course of this work. Even his retreat is not altogether free from blame. By remaining stationary during eight days in a bad position, full of defiles occupied by the enemy, he ran the risk of being either completely routed, or finding himself in want of military stores. If it did not so turn out, Moreau had no merit in it: it must be attributed to the faults committed by the Austrian generals, and particularly by M. de Latour.' Vol. i. p. 138.

We have now two causes assigned for the safety of the French army; namely, the immense circle formed round Moreau, and the diversion made by general Hotze in Alsace—in other words, the talents of Moreau baffled the efforts of his enemy; and, if they had changed their system of attack, we have not the least doubt that his talents would have been equally distinguished in a different mode of retreat.

Bonaparte is allowed to have some military abilities; but it is not clearly proved to us, that, if he had advanced a step beyond his position when the suspension of hostilities was agreed on between him and the archduke, it must have been followed by the entire ruin of his army. This, however, is so satisfactorily proved in the author's apprehension, that he does not hesitate to say that

'—the plan of invasion pursued by Bonaparte neither agreed with the principles of ordinary offensive war, nor with those of a war of conquest; that prudence did not direct its execution, and that without the peace of Leoben, its issue, far from being such as the French had promised to themselves, would have been more or less fatal. This judgment may rather be considered as well founded, as it is also the opinion of many enlightened military men, who, in the examination of this interesting question, have not suffered themselves to be influenced by their particular affections, or by their political sentiments. Some persons have indeed taken the opposite side; but so little susceptible is it of defence, that it has not been attempted by two men who certainly cannot be suspected of partiality towards the Austrians—Dumouriez and Carnot. With whatever reluctance their evidence is resorted to, the judgment which they have publicly delivered on the subject under consideration cannot but be mentioned. If their morality is utterly contemptible, the same cannot be said of their talents; and their authority must have weight in military matters: unfortunately they have but too well proved that they know well, the one how to project, the other how to execute. Dumou-

riez has not hesitated to say, that, without the conclusion of the armistice, Bonaparte could not have escaped complete destruction; and he has given nearly the same proofs of it that have been just adduced.' Vol. ii. p. 136.

Bonaparte, it seems, owes his reputation to mere chance; his exploits will not bear examination. A superior general is to be found among his adversaries.

'If the brilliant result which crowned the expedition of the French general was calculated to astonish the vulgar, the wise conduct of his illustrious rival is calculated to excite the admiration of men of the art. If Fabius, arrived at the maturity of age, after a youth spent in camps and a long experience of reverses, which had given him the means of knowing the formidable enemy with whom he had to contend—if Fabius, a dictator, disposing at his pleasure of all the resources and all the forces of Rome against an enemy, enfeebled by bloody campaigns, and having no hope either of succours or reinforcements from his country—if Fabius has acquired an immortal renown and the surname of the Buckler of Rome, for having suspended by a wise temporising system the Carthaginian general—what must be thought of a young prince, scarcely twenty-five years of age, and brought up in all the effeminacy of a court, who, after having in the preceding year repulsed from the heart of Germany, and forced to return upon their own frontier, two formidable armies, quitted the theatre of his glory, in order to come to arrest the progress of the conqueror of Italy, who having to oppose to his triumphant army only the feeble relics of an army discouraged by a series of disasters, who, ill seconded by ministers and subalterns, jealous or ill intentioned, made on all points of an immense line an obstinate resistance, disputed the ground step by step, insensibly drew his rash enemy into defiles, separated them from their magazines, and harassed them with boldness, and who, after having by this conduct augmented his own forces and diminished those of his rival, while he opposed him formidably in front, surrounded and turned his flanks, threatened his rear, and left to the exhausted victor no other reserve but that of a retreat, which was become almost impracticable.—Such was the state into which, by the wise conduct of the archduke, affairs had been brought, when the timidity of the court of Vienna, and the treaty of Leoben, which was the result, deprived this prince of the opportunity of raising his own glory upon the ruin of that of Bonaparte, and of becoming a second time the saviour of Germany.' Vol. ii. p. 141.

If Bonaparte have so little claim to military praise, we need not be surprised that very capital errors are attributed to Massena, though he defeated the Russians so completely in Switzerland, and that the author consoles himself in the opportunity of passing from censure to admiration—from Massena to Suwarrow. Yet if we do not subscribe entirely to his criticisms, we select, with great pleasure, his general remarks on the Swiss campaign.

'In future, those who wish to acquire a knowledge of mountain war, will study the attack of the Engadine by general Lecourbe—the skilful recovery of the same country by general Bellegarde—the attack of Luciensteig, by general Hotze—that of St. Gothard and of the Valley of the Reuss, by general Haddick—the well-concerted operations by which Lecourbe re-possessed himself of the smaller cantons—the faults by which the generals Korsakow and Petrarch lost, to the allies, the possession of Switzerland—the rapid march of marshal Suworow, and the heroic efforts of his troops, who, coming in hopes of conquest, were obliged to conquer, in order to retreat.—Every young soldier, inflamed with the love of his profession, will study this curious and terrible campaign in the country itself where it was carried on. He will go to contemplate these enormous masses of rocks, upon which the inhabitants of the Pyrenean, and of the Carpathian mountains, met with astonishment. He will climb those precipitous paths which nature seems to reserve for the light mountain goat, and which, however, were ascended by entire battalions. He will reach those higher pinnacles where armed men went to dispute the thunder of the skies—those arid rocks, where men exposed to every want felt still the desire of destroying one another. He will descend into these gloomy hollows, of which the clang of arms so often disturbed the solemn repose. He will traverse those rich valleys ravaged by war, and perhaps not yet re-animated by the hand of industry. He will then receive a double lesson. War will present itself to his eyes both as an art and as a scourge. He will study the one from the love for his country, and will detest the other from a love for humanity; and he will say to himself, If ever fate places me at the head of an army, may I be able to find, in the art, the means of diminishing the scourge! May I wage war with sufficient knowledge to make it short and decisive! May I be indebted for victory rather to my head than to my arm! And may I thus merit the gratitude of my country, and the esteem of my enemies, by sparing, as much as possible, the blood of the soldier, the property of the citizen, and the benefits of civilization.' Vol. iii. p. 382.

The masterly manner in which the character of Suwarrow is drawn is too honourable a testimony to this writer's talents to be, notwithstanding its length, omitted.

'The most general defect in the human mind, that of forming extreme judgments, was perhaps never more perceptible than in those which have been given concerning marshal Suworow. Some thinking him capable of doing all which they wished he should do, and, if it may be so said, seeing in him the Messiah of the counter-revolution, have not recognised his superior among the greatest ancient or modern generals:—others, either regretting what he has effected, or finding that he had not done enough, have lowered him to a very moderate rank among military men. Both seem to be wrong, and more especially the latter. If it would be unreasonable to allot him a place by the side of Hannibal, Cæsar, Turenne, and Frederick, still, however, he has always shewn some qualities which belong only to generals of the highest class—boldness and decision of plans, vigour and rapidity

in their execution, obstinacy in contending for victory; above all, the art of conducting and employing the troops of his nation, according to their particular genius. It is by considering him in the latter point of view that his true rank can be best estimated. He was a general formed by and for the Russians; having a long time studied, and perfectly known two things,—the qualities of his nation, and those of the neighbouring people with whom they had naturally to wage war; and having directed his ideas and military conduct to this double point of view. Certainly this is no little merit, and authorizes the conclusion, that if the man who was so completely possessed of it had received his military education in the Prussian, Austrian, or French schools, he would have assimilated himself equally well to each of their different systems, and would have made as great advances in the line of merits peculiar to each of these three people.

'The singularity of the character and manners of Suworow has had no small influence upon the opposite opinions which have been formed of him as a general. Some, struck with every thing which is extraordinary, and constantly confounding it with what is great, have thought that a man who at the age of 70 years lay always upon straw, had a pail of water every morning thrown upon his head, never eat but when he was hungry, dined sometimes at eight o'clock in the morning, drank indifferently of brandy or water, went post upon a countryman's kibick, and had no other horses than merely those of the cossacks; that a man who, in one word, lived as a Scythian, could not fail of being superior to generals who possessed the effeminacies, tastes, and manners, of the actual inhabitants of our part of Europe. Others, hearing that the same man was devout, that he would suddenly fall on his knees in the open fields, or in his chamber, to return thanks to God for a piece of good news; that he was, in presence of his sovereign as a Turk before his sultan, and that he enjoyed with some degree of vanity the badges of honour with which he was covered, were not able to imagine that this assemblage of manners, of the desert, of the cloister, and of the court, could be united in a head sufficiently well organized to be capable of conducting great armies and great enterprizes. A small number of persons have explored the truth in the mid-way between two such opposite opinions. Though they are sensible that, in the actual nature of war, the perfect knowledge of this art leaves behind it all other military qualities, and that a sybarite, with a superiority of genius and talents, would be the greatest general, because he would be the most useful one, they know at the same time that, in the moral as well as in the natural world, there are few things which are not good for something, and suspect that the eccentricities of the character and manners of Suworow may have been as much the result of design as of the constitution of his mind. He may have reflected that a people, still in many respects half barbarians, superstitious, credulous, acquainted with no other political sentiment but that of a devoted obedience, would be likely, and even must be impressed by rude and ancient manners, by striking practices of external worship, and by the example of an unlimited devotedness to sovereign authority.

Whatever the cause may be, the effect is not equivocal. It is certain that Suworow exercised over the minds of the Russian soldiers an empire of a stronger nature than merely that of authority; that they had a degree of admiration, of respect, and of esteem for him, almost religious; that they considered themselves as invincible under him; and that every order which proceeded from his mouth appeared to them, if it may be so said, that of fate: nothing seemed impossible when Suworow thought it possible—he had but to speak—he had but to shew himself. To him, as well as to Corbulon, the words of Tacitus may be applied:

"Summa auctoritate, quæ viro militari pro facundia erat."

'It was by this secret empire, that, under him, the Russian soldiers have performed marches almost fabulous; that he sent them to attack in front batteries; that he made them mount to the assault before the breach was ready; that he kept them firm in the midst of the most destructive fire: it was thus that he performed enterprizes which another general would not have dared to undertake, and which other troops would not have executed: it was thus that he achieved victories which would have escaped any other than himself.

'To conclude; to give in a few words a final opinion upon this man, it may be said that he appears to have possessed rather the instinct of war than any deep knowledge of its art; that he had more energy of character than extent of genius; that he knew admirably well how to supply the want of one by the other; that he must not be compared with any other general; that in that capacity, as well as in that of an individual, he stood single by himself; that he was the best possible general for Russians; that, if he was not great, he was, however, capable of doing great things, and that he has done some.' Vol. iv. p. 249.

From these extracts our readers will form a favourable opinion of the present work, which merits, indeed, the utmost attention of the military department; and we should be glad to hear that it made one volume of the marching library of every regiment. The campaigns of this unhappy war cannot be too much studied; and if the young soldier will be at the pains of comparing the relations in this work with those given of the same actions by the French—of marking the different objects of praise and blame, as they are represented by the different writers—if he do not suffer his mind to be warped by political attachments, and read with a view to become well grounded in his profession, these volumes will be found eminently useful to him, and they may then be recommended in the strong language of the poet:

'Nocturnâ versate manu, versate diurnâ.'

ART. IV.—*New Picture of Paris. By M. Mercier. Translated from the French.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 16*s. Boards.* Symonds. 1800.

M. MERCIER is known to the world by his Old Picture of Paris, and the Year 2440. In the former he gave a description of the French under the old despotism; in the latter he painted their future situation, which he very wisely postponed to a distant period. Having been an eye-witness of, and a sufferer in, the changes which have occurred during the last twelve years, no one is able to describe them with more accuracy, or lament their miseries with greater sensibility. Writers in foreign countries have taken pleasure in ascribing every vice and every horror to the whole of the French nation; just as if, in the same nation, every detestable action which had ever been committed by a prince were to be brought forward as a charge against all princes, and the vices of crowned heads at large to become the favourite subject—*nullâ virtute redempta.* Thus prejudice and passion cast a mist over every action; and, like the Pharisee in the parable, by aggravating the faults of our neighbours, we seem to think that our own will be covered, and that we shall appear more exalted by the contrast.

The great mistake in the revolution is well painted by this writer, and is a good clue to unravel the mysterious transactions which every day took place under the masque of patriotic intentions.

'Our old government was despotic and degrading, and we have overthrown it by an effort of generous enthusiasm; but we have confounded what was right to destroy, with what was necessary to preserve; what was intimately connected with despotism, with what might have allied itself with every form of government. The project was to form an entire new race of men, and we have been transformed into savages. In our rage for creating and destroying, of exploding received ideas, we have never known on what foundations to rest. In proscribing superstition, we have annihilated religious sentiments; but this was not the mode to regenerate the world. Amidst this disorder, this moral anarchy, let us endeavour to seize a thread to guide us. The end of these terrible innovators was to substitute the love of our country in place of every other affection. The love of our country ought undoubtedly to be the basis of republican virtue; but in order to feel this affection, we must find happiness in our country. This attachment, which ought to warm the republican, is not merely that instinct which binds man to the glebe where he was born, which endears him to the tree that shades the cottage where his cradle was rocked. The republican embraces in his affection all who surround him; all his fellow-citizens are dear to him; he is connected with them all by a kind of patriotic consanguinity.

In this new order of things, we could not conscientiously embrace and cherish the French nobility. This class was in some sort a proud cast, like the bonzes, the gymnosophists of India, more anxious to

separate themselves from the community than to be useful. The nobility ought to have seen, that the world is condemned to perpetual convulsions. Empires fall into ruins, nations disappear. Barbarians issue from their forests, subjugate countries enervated by luxury, the arts and enjoyments. Errors, follies, and violence, compose in every age and in every country the history of mankind. In hearing all the lamentable cries which have been uttered against the revolution, one might suppose that the Parisian had never read history, since he seemed to imagine himself a privileged being, for ever exempted from those ancient calamities which were only destined to figure on paper; in the same manner as when, in full health, we read books on medicine, and are astonished, afflicted, and groan at the disease which attacks us, as if all were subject to feel it but ourselves. The child, who strikes the table against which he has hurt himself, is but a feeble image of Parisian puerility accusing all nature, all mankind, all events, for the political evils of which his city was the centre. The Parisian had no foresight of what has happened, and believed that it was an unexpected scourge, created, arranged, and prepared solely against himself, and the language of his complaint was so extravagant, that it became at times humorous and comic, being an incredible mixture of every thing new which wit and folly could collect together.' Vol. i. P. 10.

The effect of money on the French court, the introduction of paper speculations, and the consequent derangement of the finances and extravagance of all ranks, are placed with great judgement among the active causes of the revolution.

'The caisse d'escompte has a right to [*may*] claim its place amongst the principal causes which have produced the revolution. Versailles never would have been able, or have even ventured to abandon itself to those wild and extravagant scenes of dissipation which made so great noise throughout Europe, had it not found so much facility in making loans, which facility would not have offered itself without the assistance of the caisse d'escompte.

This bank engendered that mongrel breed of stockjobbers, princes, courtiers, magistrates, military men, financiers, notaries, and factors. The immense quantity of fictitious money which was thrown into the capital made those imprudent and unreflecting youths who surrounded the throne imagine that they were placed at the head of a nation which was inexhaustible, and for ever at their orders. They dreamt [*dreamed*] that they had nothing to do but to enjoy life, thinking themselves absolute masters, and above every kind of controul, and presumed that they might even throw aside their cumbrous dignity, that magical virtue of courts. The queen began with overturning all those old-established ceremonies which stood in the way of her tastes and her pleasures, without considering that etiquette was the palladium of the house.

'The retreat or disgrace of the Malsherbes, the Turgots, and the Neckers, indicated to the nation that it would be more easy to destroy Versailles than to amend it.

'There was not a corner of the French dominions which was not

sullied with the scandalous debaucheries of those who were called the young Seigneurs; and as to their reputation, they had themselves taken so much liberty with it, that calumny had nothing to add on that head.' Vol. i. p. 26.

The abbé Maury is so conspicuous a character in this revolution, that our readers will be desirous of reading a description of him from a republican pen.

'I knew him well,' says the author; 'a mere sprig of divinity: he, however, entertained an idea of raising himself to the first rank of the ecclesiastical hierarchy, and talked to me of his future elevation when he had not enough to purchase himself half a dinner. He told me, "I shall enter the French academy long before you;" and at that time he had not written even a bad sermon. His first productions were specimens of what is most wretched and obscure in any language. But he was born with the spirit of an academician, a talent for preaching, and the impudence of an antichamber. He had great confidence in his oratory, because he had exercised it with success on several men of common understanding; and assumed sometimes the supple, sometimes the lofty, and sometimes the unctious, tone of a priest;—he was always fond of acting the priest.

'He has done the greatest services to the revolution; for it was he who rendered the clergy obstinate and restive, and who, by exhorting them not to bend, caused them to break. It is he also who put into the head of all the nobles that system of emigration, the most extravagant, most impolitic, and most cowardly, which they could have chosen.' Vol. i. p. 155.

In every country in which there is liberty there must be parties; for all men cannot think alike on every measure; and where all are equally attached to liberty and to the constitution of their country, these parties are reviving breezes, preventing the stagnation of the air. In such a country, the most mistaken, or the most dangerous men, are those who affect impartiality, who would steer between both, and thus endeavour to secure a favourable reception from each in its turn; and, having no sentiments of their own, or at least acting upon none, they scarcely deserve the name of men, and are unworthy of the blessings of a free constitution. This class is well described, as they were at Paris, under the name of Impartialists.

'This was the name given at the beginning of the revolution to those men who, having no ideas of their own, did not venture to adopt those of others, for fear of committing themselves, and who finished by being the laughing-stock of every party.

'Some persons were embarrassed, or affected to be so (in 1789) to know how much six and six made. They addressed themselves to a deputy of the *coté gauche*, who answered, *Six and six make twelve.*

"He who hears but one side hears nothing," exclaimed a thinker. "Let us hear a deputy of the *coté droit.*" The question was proposed to this honourable member, who, after having maturely reflected, answered, "*Six and six make fourteen.*"

'New embarrassments. A member of the middle of the assembly is consulted.

"How many," he asks, "did the left side tell you?"—"Twelve."—"And how many the right?"—"Fourteen."—"In this case six and six make thirteen. You see that I am impartial." Vol. i. p. 258.

In this manner the writer brings to our view the chief features of every party, and the principal characters of the revolution, not forgetting to paint in striking colours the frivolity of the Parisians, which at no one period seems to have forsaken them. He is justly severe in his attacks on the atheists, the philosophists, the priests, and the emigrants; he spares none who either made a mock at religion, or endeavoured to turn it to their own interests, by covering it with the vile trappings of popish mummery and degrading superstition. His pen traces with equal fidelity the manners of the old and the new Parisians; and the personage who chiefly directs the motions of the new republic excites so lively an interest among all classes, that we cannot deny ourselves the satisfaction of placing before our readers his portrait, drawn by this masterly pencil.

'Bonaparte is of the middle size, a little stooping, thin, of somewhat a delicate frame, and nervous; his hair is of a deep chesnut, falling over a large forehead; his eyes are large, dark, quick, and piercing, aquiline nose, a raised chin, like that of the Apollo Belvidere, pale complexion, hollow cheeks, a voice unrestrained and composed; he listens attentively to those who speak to him, and answers briefly; his air is solemn, but open; he has not the austerity which characterises the head of Brutus: you may judge from his address that he is a temperate, meditative man, but tenacious in the point which he has in view; that his pale complexion reddens in a decisive action; that his body is all nerve, like that of the lion; that he fights in the same way; that he is indefatigable, and flies like lightning towards the enemy, before whom he never knew fear; this fire is concentered; he reserves it for great and strong explosions, and it does not imprint on his motions that restlessness natural to men who are only ardent, and who have not the faculty of self-possession.

'Serious as Cato, from him the French will learn to be sedate, to respect their magistrates, their representatives; to despise that light airy behaviour for which they have been characterised; to lay aside their habits of punning, which are fit only for giddy-headed men and the masters of puppet-shows.

'Let republicans then take Bonaparte for a model; and since they respect him both as a wise man and a warrior, let them imitate his reserve and demeanour; let them assume his simple and sober dignity. Fewer words will evince more reflection, and less mobility of features more of greatness and reason. The sacrilegious double entendre, which disgraces many of our societies and our theatres, ought no longer to dishonour the style of a great nation: let us learn to converse as we have learnt to conquer, without violent exertions, and

without exaggeration; let us be the example of wisdom, after having been that of victory; and let not a bon-mot, made or repeated by a pamphleteer, turn into ridicule amongst us the sacred letter of the laws.' Vol. ii. P. 442.

The translation is not worthy of the original, and abounds with gallicisms that might easily have been avoided. The famous answer of Bailly on the scaffold is strangely metamorphosed into a question, and the beauty of the anecdote and the courage of the philosopher are equally lost. 'Do you tremble, Bailly? Yes—I shiver—with cold.'

ART. V.—*Critical Remarks on the Hebrew Scriptures, &c. (Continued from p.* 10 *of the present Volume.)*

OUR last number began with announcing this elaborate work, the preface to which, from the singular nature of its contents, having suggested much matter for remark, entirely occupied our attention. We shall now go beyond the vestibule, and examine the interior; pointing out to our readers such of the more prominent parts as may appear most deserving their notice.

'Ver. 1. *In the beginning* בראשית. This word, on which so much has been written, can refer only to one or other of two periods; either proleptically, to the six days creation, or to some prior epoch. Those who refer it to a prior epoch, render *originally*. So the late bishop Law, in his manuscript notes; and so some German interpreters of the present day. Nay, the Chaldee paraphrast Jonathan seems to have taken it in that sense; for he renders it מן אולא *à principio*.

'I would rather refer it to what follows; and if I were to paraphrase the verse, I would do it thus: "The first thing which God did, to make earth a suitable habitation for man, was to give to it and to the heavens the reciprocal appearances which they now have. Before that period the earth was immersed in water, and covered with thick darkness, &c, and with respect to *it*, the *heavens* existed not; that is, all those ethereal phenomena, which constitute what we call *the heavens*, were yet invisible."—Such a change or revolution might justly and properly be denominated a *creation:* for the word ברא, which we render *created*, has been, without reason, considered as implying an absolute creation out of nothing; as will be shewn in the next remark but one.' P. 1.

That ברא, as Dr. Geddes, both here and in a following note, observes, does not always imply absolute creation, we admit; but we see nothing in what the doctor has advanced to exclude that sense; nor can we by any means assent to his critique (p. 10) on the words εξ ουκ οντων. 'Εξ ουκ οντων [not μηδενος] our English translators inaccurately, not to say absurdly, render "of things that were not." For how,' asks he, 'can things *be* things and *not be* things?—' We might ask in return, if an apposite

answer be not contained in the most striking example of the sublime that ever writer produced, and which occurs in the third verse of this very chapter? 'BE, LIGHT! AND LIGHT WAS*. Light, from eternity, had existed in the contemplation of the divine mind, and hence is addressed accordingly. This, the doctor will object, is Platonism. Be it so: does it follow then that Platonism is nonsense? It is certain that things cannot, at the same time and in the same sense, *be* and *not be*; but, in respect to the deity, they may and must exist in design before they have actual existence. Hence, 'the lamb slain before the foundation of the world.'—Instead of considering בראשית in the doctor's sense, we prefer bishop Law's, and, accordingly, would render it *originally*.

The doctor has taken great pains in tracing out the etymology and exhibiting the various significations of the word אלהים, but, after all, has left the controversy on this subject where he found it. We conclude with him and *Aurivillius*, whom he might have cited to advantage, that the plural form is idiomatic of superlative excellence.

With doctor Geddes's observations on the different modes of writing the same word אל and איל, in opposition to Michaelis (see p. 2.) we concur, and, besides the instances pointed out by him of a suppressed י, as in חק for חיק, חל for חיל, מע for מיע, שש for שיש, רק for ריק, could have still added others. On this word אלהים, Dr. Geddes observes

'One query, partly grammatical, still remains unanswered. Do the plural forms אלהים and אלהי denote a plurality of persons, when applied to the one true God?—No; not any more than אדונים and אדוני denote a plurality of *lords*, בוראי and בוראים a plurality of *creators*, פני and פנים a plurality of *faces*, or חיים a plurality of *lives*.—It is truly strange that such a notion should ever have been entertained; and indeed it is only a modern notion, of the same age with scholastic theology. The Christian fathers of the church, who were eager enough to discover in the Old Testament proofs of a Trinity, never dreamed of seeking one in אלהים. Hear Jerom on the word: "Scire autem debemus, quod ELOIM communis numeri sit; et quod unus Deus sic vocetur, et plures: ad quam similitudinem *cæli* quoque appellantur et *cælum;* id est SAMAIM (unde et sæpe interpretes variant)—Cujus rei exemplum nos in lingua nostra habere possumus: *Athenas, Thebas, Salonas*" Ep. ad Marcellam, vol. 2. p. 705. ed. Bened. It has been already remarked that the term אלהים is applied not only to the true GOD, but to false gods; and even to a single

* In the doctor's translation this sublime injunction, as in our common version, is given: *Let there be light: and there was light:* a rendering, than which nothing can be more tastless, exclusive of the words *let* and *there* intruded, the former of which is, at best, *redundant*, and the latter *restrictive*, besides having nothing corresponding in the original. This, however, we have objected on a former occasion, and are glad to see our remark, though not mentioned, adopted.

false god, whether male or female, such as *Baal*, *Dagon*, *Ashtharoth*, &c. It is applied to one angel in Jud. 13. 22. and to one man, Moses, Exod. 4. 16. and 7. 1. Nay, the golden calf is called, by Aaron himself, אלהי זהב gods of gold. The plural number then is no proof of a trinity of gods or persons: and this is, indeed, allowed by the best commentators, whether Catholic or Protestant. See Drusius's Dissertation on the word אלהים in the second volume of the Sacred Critics, part 2. p. 298.

'For the rest, the application of the term to great men, as well as to God, was not peculiar to the Hebrews: the Greek ΘΕΟΣ, and the Latin DEUS and DIVUS, had often the like appropriations: particularly among the poets.—So natural is it for men in high stations to *receive*, and men in low stations to *give*, epithets and appellations that belong only to the great Supreme Being.' P. 8.

[Will the doctor allow us to ask, if there be a *little* Supreme Being?]

'How the plural number אלהים came to be in such general use among the Hebrews' Dr. Geddes thus proceeds to show:

'Before the vocation of Abraham, polytheism seems generally to have prevailed: the gods, therefore, would be a general term. The error, in worship, was rectified by the Hebrew legislator: but stubborn language has seldom been known to bend even to legislative power; and a term, once become idiomatical, is not easily dislodged. Thus אלהים, we may suppose, obstinately kept its place in the Hebrew or rather Phenician dialect: although its meaning was generally restricted to one God, by putting the concording verb or adjective in the singular number. Every language hath some such peculiarities. The Greeks, even the polite Athenians, could say and write *Ζωα τρεχει*, the animals *runs*. *Δι' ὁμιχλης τα σωματα μεζονα φαινεται*, Bodies *appears* greater through a cloud. The correct and elegant Plato could say *Εστιν οἱτινες*, There *is* some; just as the French scruple not to say, *Il est des hommes—Il est des cas*—and *C'est vous, qui*, &c.; nor we, "It *was* the French who *were* the agressors:" although, strictly speaking, all these phrases are real solecisms. And so is the word *means* with a singular verb or adjective: which, however, is still, in spite of Lowth's remonstrance, used even by polite speakers; who never think of the impropriety.' P. 8.

By the doctor's version of ויהי ערב ויהי בקרי יום אחד *The evening came, and the morning came, one day*—we are not much illuminated. Granting *ἡμερονυκτιον* to signify, not *evening and morning*, but *day* and *night*, an *entire day*, as applied by Dr. Geddes to the subject before us, it surely favours the interpretation opposite to his own; or, in other words, expresses not the *lapse*, but a *continuity*, of time; thence agreeing with the original in its acceptation. We can see no reason why יהי should be rendered *came*, unless to colour an arbitrary version. On verse 26, *Let us make man*, &c. Dr. Geddes exclaims,

'What grand ideas are here presented to view! Omnipotent

Power seeming to exert itself, by a last effort, in the formation of a Being, which should in some degree bear its *own* resemblance! and that Being constituted the sovereign of the earth!—Cosmologists of Egypt, Chaldæa, Greece, and Italy! hide your diminished heads! and read in a barbarian writer a finer passage than any of you ever wrote.' P. 20.

Observing that, on the text of this passage, there is little room for critical remarks, except on the word נעשה, *let us make:* better *make we:* the doctor goes on to inquire 'if the use of a plural verb here imply a plurality of gods, or at least of persons in the godhead?' and, after giving the orthodox argument from Chrysostom, with the interpretations of the Jewish writers, he adds,

'As a critic, I will only say: That the word נישה does not necessarily imply a plurality, any more than אדונים ,אלהים ,בוראים; and I believe that it is found even in the Hebrew writings applied to a single mortal: namely, Song of Sol. i. 11. תורי זהב נעשה לך "*We will make* for thee a collar of gold." Where I am persuaded that *we* means only Solomon himself; as in ver. 4. "*We will run* after thee," is only applicable to his beloved fair-one. So again, in the same verse: "We will be glad"—"We will remember." So also, ch. 8. 8. "*We have* a little sister:" and in several other places of this admirable poem the plural is used for the singular. Nor is it peculiar to the Hebrew. It is quite familiar to the Arabs. The Mussulmans are certainly no Trinitarians: yet nothing is more common in the Koran than God's speaking in the plural number. *We did—we gave—we commanded.* The same phraseology has prevailed in the western nations: and *nos, noi, nous,* and *we,* are continually in the mouths of the great men of the earth. I am therefore strongly inclined to think with the writers above mentioned, that the נעשה of Genesis implies no plurality of persons.—At any rate, I would say to those who imagine that they find here an argument in favour of the Trinity, what our Cartwright said near two hundred years ago—"Non mihi hujusmodi locis ad impugnandum adversarium inniti, sat tutum videtur." P. 21.

Here, however, a reference is made to the doctor's remark on the twenty-second verse of the third chapter, part of which is as follows:

'*Lo! Adam*—or *man—is become like one of us.* If there be any passage in the Old Testament which countenances a plurality of persons in the godhead; or, to speak more properly, a plurality of gods, it is this passage. He does not say simply *like us;* but like *one of us* כאחד ממנו. This can hardly be explained as we have explained נעשה *Let us make,* ch. i. 26. and I confess it has always appeared to me to imply a plurality of gods, in some sense or other. It is well known that the *Lord,* or *Jehovah,* is called in the Hebrew Scriptures "The God of Gods." He is also represented as a sovereign "sitting on his throne, attended by all the heavenly host;" in Job called

the Sons of God; i. e. *Gods;* as *prophets* are called *the sons of the prophets;* and, in Greek, *physicians*, the *sons of the physicians*.—We may readily conceive, then, that some of those gods, probably angels of the superior order, would accompany their sovereign in his supposed excursions to the earth; more especially when he was to hold a court, as we may say, and pronounce judgment on guilty man. This supposition is perfectly agreeable to other passages of Hebrew Scripture: wherever Jehovah is present, whether on Sinai or in Zion, there he is attended by "twenty thousand angels" of the cherubic order. Ps. 68. 17.—When he appeared to Jacob at Bethel, he was attended by angels. Gen. 28. 12. And, when he deigned to wrestle with the same patriarch, he had a whole camp, or camps, of angels at hand. Gen. 32. 1, 30.—To his attendants, then, his courtiers and ministers, he may readily be supposed to have addressed these words: "Lo! Adam is so far become like one of us, as to know good and evil." P. 48.

We could with much pleasure have attended the doctor step by step; but, as our limits render it impossible, we will proceed to the second verse of the second chapter; where, instead of reading בּיוֹם הַשְּׁבִיעִי *on the seventh day*, the doctor stickles for substituting בּיוֹם הַשִּׁשִּׁי *on the sixth day*, to make the text correspond with (as it appears to us) his strange and inadmissible version: *the evening came and the morning came, one day**. A question here is raised by the doctor on the sabbath, whether it really were an institution from the creation, or only from the Mosaic appointment. The doctor with all his might contends against the former, but, we cannot help thinking, with little success. *The resting from work on the* SEVENTH DAY and HALLOWING IT, or setting it apart as sacred from other days, is, if to us there be any sense in words, a proof direct and positive, exclusive of what occurs in Exodus xvi.

'22. And it came to pass *that* on the sixth day they gathered twice as much bread, two omers for one *man:* and all the rulers of the congregation came and told Moses.

'23. And he said unto them. This *is that* which the Lord hath said, To-morrow *is* the rest of the holy sabbath unto the Lord; bake *that* which ye will bake *to-day*, and seethe that ye will seethe; and that which remaineth over lay up for you to be kept until the morning.

'24. And they laid it up till the morning, as Moses bade: and it did not stink, neither was there any worm therein.

'25. And Moses said, Eat that to-day: for to-day *is* a sabbath unto the Lord: to-day ye shall not find it in the field.

'26. Six days ye shall gather it, but on the seventh day, *which is* the sabbath, in it there shall be none.

'27. And it came pass, *that* there went out *some* of the people on the seventh day, for to gather; and they found none.

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* Pott and Ilgen alter the text in the same manner, though not mentioned by the doctor.

'28. And the Lord said unto Moses, How long refuse ye to keep my commandments and my laws?

'29. See, for that the Lord hath given you the sabbath, therefore he giveth you on the sixth day the bread of two days; abide ye every man in his place, let no man go out of his place on the seventh day.

'30. So the people rested on the seventh day.'

Now, as this refers to a time before the giving of the decalogue, so we find the fourth commandment, instead of *instituting* the sabbath, manifestly referring to an antecedent institution: 'REMEMBER *the sabbath day* to keep it *holy*, whence it is called *the sabbath of the* LORD *thy* GOD, *who, in six days, made heaven and earth, and rested on the* SEVENTH *day:* WHEREFORE *the Lord blessed the sabbath day and hallowed it.* During their long bondage and oppression, by excessive labour in Egypt, the Hebrew nation had been habitually made to desecrate the sabbath. Hence the necessity of frequent injunction on this head, and the making the *remembrance* of its original institution the subject of a positive precept. In consequence of this also the sabbath day was designated as such during the *forty years'* residence in the wilderness by the giving a double portion of manna on the *sixth* day and withholding it on the *seventh.*

At this subject, the doctor pausing, takes a retrospective view of the whole scheme of creation which the first chapter of Genesis exhibits; and, just as though the great object to the world in the work before him, were to state what he, as an individual, thought of this or that part of the Bible, he asks,

'Do I believe, then, that the narrative of Genesis is not a literally true narration? or that it is in all, or many of its parts, a pure allegory? I believe, neither the one nor the other: I believe it to be a most beautiful mythos, or philosophical fiction, contrived with great wisdom, dressed up in the garb of real history, adapted, as I have said, to the shallow intellects of a rude barbarous nation; and perfectly well calculated for the great and good purposes for which it was contrived; namely, to establish the belief of one supreme God and Creator, in opposition to the various and wild systems of idolatry which then prevailed; and to enforce the observance of a periodical day, to be chiefly devoted to the service of that Creator, and the solacing repose of his creatures.' P. 26.

In our poor judgement it is but of little moment to the world what the doctor *does*, or *does not*, believe,—the question being, what is the sense of the narrative, and whether that be or be not credible. Were it otherwise, the doctor would have left us in an awkward predicament, for he declares that he neither believes it to be a literally true narration, nor that it is in all, or in many of its parts, a pure allegory. What then does Dr. Geddes believe it? Why, forsooth, a beautiful *mythos*:—And what, gentle reader, is a *mythos?* why, a narration not literally

true, nor in all, or many of its parts, a true allegory; but a philosophical fiction, contrived with great wisdom, no doubt, as being neither literally nor allegorically true, but 'adapted,' says the doctor, 'to the shallow intellects of a barbarous nation, and perfectly well calculated to establish the belief of one supreme God and Creator, and to enforce the observance of a periodical day to be chiefly devoted to the service of that Creator, and the solacing repose of his creatures.' That the Mosaic history is wisely adapted to these two ends we do not think any one will have the folly to deny; but that the history is neither literally nor allegorically true, and, therefore, wisely contrived to effect them, appears to us stark nonsense.—Let others, however, judge. Dr. Geddes closes his observations on this subject—after declaring that 'he sets not up for a dogmatist'—with observing, that 'some of the first scholars and critics of the age think very little differently' from himself; and, in proof of his candour, refers to RAU's *Programma De Fictione Mosaica falso adserta;* the elder ROSENMULLER's *Antiquissima Telluris Historia à Mose descripta;* and DÖDERLEIN's *Institutes of Christian Divinity:* or, if these volumes be not at hand, to DATHE's *Translation of the Pentateuch,* and *the Scholia* of ROSENMULLER, *the son.*

Always happy to accord with Dr. Geddes, we present, with pleasure, his declaration in the following passage:

> 'I hasten to the second chapter; which is, at present, pretty generally supposed to be another cosmogonical fragment, written by a different person, and inserted by Moses in his commentaries as a curious piece of antiquity. I confess I have never been able to view it in that light: after all the pains that Astruc, Eichhorn, and others have taken to prove the diversity, I can find nothing in it but a natural resumption of the subject, by the same pen which wrote the first chapter; and with the same wise, political, and religious views.' P. 29.

Professor Eichhorn's ingenuity in framing his hypothesis—or rather Dr. Astruc's—for he was the inventor—we will not now dispute; but every hypothesis is not *true* because it is *ingenious.* This certainly is liable to striking objections; nor is that one of the least which Dr. Geddes has remarked. Nothing to us is more obvious than that the beginning of the second chapter of Genesis should have been annexed to the first, as being properly the close of it, and containing only a recapitulation, the better to connect it with the narrative that follows.

As to the platform of the newly-invented system of Astruc and Eichhorn, which is laid on the alternative application of *Elohim* and *Jehovah,* we cannot help thinking it much too frail for the superstructure reared upon it. It by no means *proves* that the book of Genesis was formed from two imaginary fragments. Moses might, for the purpose of varying his style, have sometimes used

the one, and sometimes the other; as he has done, after the thirty-fifth chapter, with *Jacob* and *Israel;* and it cannot be denied that *Elohim* and *Jehovah* frequently are so used in the other four books of the Pentateuch, which, it is admitted, Moses himself *wrote originally*, and not *compiled from memoirs.*

(To be continued.)

ART. VI.—*The History of Ancient and Modern Egypt; comprehending a View of the Natural Phenomena; the Efforts of Genius and Art; and the Moral, Religious, Commercial, and Political Transactions of the Egyptians, from the earliest Dawn of Intelligence, to the latest Period of authentic Information. Comprising, likewise, a Comparison betwixt the ancient and present State of Egypt, and a Philosophic View of those remarkable Productions connected with the History of that Country. From the most authentic Records. By J. Franklin, Esq.* 12*mo.* 5*s.* 6*d. Boards.* West *and* Hughes. 1800.

WE opened this publication with little expectation, as so many books have already appeared on the subject; but we found Mr. Franklin an agreeable new acquaintance, who has compressed into a small volume a great part of the most valuable information contained in many expensive works. There is indeed but a parsimonious display of ancient learning, and the style is rather inelegant.

In the advertisement, which is chiefly remarkable for the use of the pronoun *we*, when it is inscribed 'the author,' Mr. Franklin informs us that his chief design has been to follow a plain and perspicuous plan, and that the subsequent volumes will be occupied with the ancient and modern history of Egypt. But when the writer boasts of consulting every source of information, he is advancing a boast to which he is not entitled, as his sources are obviously restricted to the recent French and English accounts, together with that of the Universal History, and perhaps a few pages of Rollin.

We shall first give a brief and general idea of the contents of this volume, and then offer a few remarks on particular passages, which, accompanied with an extract or two, will enable the reader to judge for himself.

The first chapter chiefly treats of the Nile and the canals; the second of the soil, fertility, and general appearance of Egypt, with the minerals and mountains. In the third chapter is given some account of Egyptian zoölogy. The fourth chapter describes the winds, the pestilence, and other diseases. In the fifth Mr. Franklin explains the first population of Egypt, the classes and orders of the people, and their particular manners and customs. The sixth and last chapter treats of the hiero-

glyphics, the origin of the arts and sciences, the pyramids, and other remarkable buildings.

In p. 5 Mr. Franklin entertains strange ideas concerning the consequences of the destruction of the Alexandrian library, as having paved the way for depravity of manners and barbarous ignorance. We must remind him that this library perhaps contained more books of Christian metaphysics than of any other science: nor had Alexandria produced any men of solid learning for three or four centuries prior to this event. There were also a thousand other libraries in the Greek empire; so that the cause is ridiculously inadequate to the supposed effect. The exaggerations of the classics concerning Egyptian Thebes (p. 11) are rather repeated, than examined with the just spirit of rational criticism. The remarks on the travels of Bruce and Browne (p. 40) are confused and inaccurate; and Horneman the traveller is called a professor, though by what diploma we have yet to learn. With equal inaccuracy we are informed (p. 44) that the said Mr. Bruce, the traveller, was a lineal descendant of Robert Bruce, king of Scotland, but in what new line, unknown to heraldry and genealogy, our author does not condescend to acquaint us. The name is indeed the same; but Mr. Franklin seems to have confounded Alexander the Great with Alexander the copper-smith. In the account of the Lake of Mœris (p. 65) he evinces a remarkable want of information, having neither consulted D'Anville nor any more recent account. In p. 114 he assumes, with great gravity, the fabulous notion that Egypt once contained 20,000 cities! We suppose that 20,000 moderate cities would have left not one morsel of ground for agriculture.

We shall now extract a specimen of Mr. Franklin's manner; and for that purpose we shall select a subject which has been little illustrated since the time of Pococke, the account of Egyptian mountains and minerals; though, on the latter topic, Mr. Franklin might also have referred to Wad's pamphlet. It is to be regretted that much knowledge concerning the natural history of Egypt has been so long imprisoned with Dolomieu in the tower of Messina. From his late liberation we may justly expect information of no trivial value.

'If there was no other reason to be adduced in support of our opinion of the immense population of this country in ancient times, than the heaps of ruins of towns, cities, and palaces that are to be found throughout the whole extent of Egypt, that alone would be sufficient: But as those beautiful structures which still exist mark the former eminence of their abilities in architecture, we shall proceed to examine those materials which were used in their buildings, as they appear upon the surface of the country.

'From Syene to the Mediterranean, a continued bed of calcareous stone, of a whitish hue, a little soft, and containing shells similar to

those found in the Red and Mediterranean Seas, form the basis of those mountains on each side of the Nile. Of this substance are the pyramids built, likewise the cisterns and catacombs of Alexandria. All Cairo presents nothing else of which the houses are formed. Where materials for building are in such great abundance, and the Nile presenting such an easy conveyance, it may be a subject of surprise, that, in modern times, cottages, and even villages, on the banks of the river, are mostly built of mud and turf. But owing to the extreme tyranny of those who have lately been entrusted with the government of Egypt, to build would have been a mark of being possessed of property, and that would have been the signal for plunder; therefore the appearance of poverty was the only protection from the rapacity of the beys. Where the quarries of this stone have been lately worked, father Sicard says, that it extends more that twenty-five leagues, from Saouda to Manfalout.

'Several quarries of black, red, and white marble have been lately worked in different parts of the country. In the neighbourhood of Mount Kalel are those quarries situated, out of which the ancient kings made them hew those hard and polished stones of which the passages and the superb mausolea in the pyramids are formed. To the south of these is a quarry of a beautiful granite, which has been much worked.

'Adjoining the Red Sea, and in the neighbourhood of Syene, are situated inexhaustible quarries of red granite; and in the neighbourhood of the latter place there is a quarry of serpentine stone, from which vessels are made which will stand the fire. But of all the quarries of stone or marble that are to be any where met with, the most immense depot is to be found in the neighbourhood of Cossire. "It has been a wonder," says Mr. Bruce, "with all travellers, and with myself among the rest, where the ancients procured that prodigious quantity of fine marble with which all their buildings abound. That wonder, however, among many others, now ceases, after having passed, in four days, more granite, porphyry, marble, and jasper, than would build Rome, Athens, Corinth, Syracuse, Memphis, Alexandria, and half a dozen such cities." He might have added all the capitals of every country in the world; for of the many cities and edifices that have been raised, not only in Egypt but in all the circumjacent countries, only a bare impression is made upon those hills of stone and marble which they have been labouring at for more than 2,000 years.

'When we view those astonishing efforts of industry and genius, which, after a lapse of so many centuries, appear not in the least impaired, they are sufficient to fill the mind with wonder, and even admiration. It is a subject of still greater astonishment when the extent of those stones that were used in their principal buildings are considered. Herodotus mentions that the shrine in the temple of Latona, from whence the oracular divinations proceeded, consisted of one entire stone. This enormous rock was hewn out of a quarry in the isle of Philæ, near the cataracts, from whence it was brought on rafts, for the space of two hundred leagues, to its destination at the mouth of the Sebennitic branch of the Nile. This huge stone was 240 feet in circumference, and is undoubtedly the greatest weight

ever moved by human power. Many thousand workmen are related to have been employed about its removal. Perhaps the Greek historian may have taken some of his information upon report, therefore liable to error; and though he declares being an eye-witness to the above shrine, yet he continues to inform us, that, in the neighbourhood of this temple, it was said that the isle of Chemmis, in the midst of a deep and spacious lake, was one entire rock, and afloat. Such information may be viewed in a questionable shape, yet the account of the shrine is corroborated by the testimony of other ancient travellers.

'The manner which the ancients hewed the stones out of the granite quarries, for the purpose of procuring them entire, for columns or pillars, seems to be extremely laborious. After working round the stone with a narrow tool, they forced them from their beds by driving in large wedges. In favourable situations they cut the stone at the bottom and one side only, and then forced it out of its bed, with wedges, from the opposite side. Mr. Pococke, when he was at Syene, observed, that the quarries were not worked in deep, but the stones were hewn out of the sides of the low hills, and he saw several columns so marked out, that it appeared they were intended for obelisks. The sides of some hills thus cut appeared like steps of stairs, and have induced some travellers to believe that they were the remains of some ancient pyramids.

'In the desart are to be found pieces of different kinds of granite and porphyry, which are so scattered over the plain that it would be supposed they have been carried down from the mountains by the torrents, probably from quarries worked in ancient ages. Some pieces mixed with white and black spots, others veined red and green and spotted with black, appear not far distant from those huge defiles of mountains. Upon entering the defile, mountains of red marble present themselves to view; while, on the opposite side, there were mountains that contained marble of a dead green, and both which continued for several miles in one direction. These mountains had neither tree, shrub, nor blade of grass upon them; but, on proceeding farther, others appeared as if sprinkled over with Havannah or Brazil snuff. On descending these mountains towards the sea another defile presents itself consisting of green marble. The highest mountain, after these hills are nearly traversed, appears towering above the rest, and is the most remarkable among them. It is principally composed of serpentine marble, and through about one-third of the thickness runs a large vein of jasper, green spotted with red. Its hardness is so extraordinary as not to yield to the blows of a hammer; nevertheless there appears the marks of former industry more evident upon its surface than upon that of any other mountain in the defile. In the quarry of jasper, ducts or channels are observed, which run transversely along the mountain, and is a proof that water was one of the means made use of to cut those hard and massy stones.

'The exterior of these valuable mountains present nothing to the cursory observer but bare and unseemly eminences, with scarcely as much verdure upon them as would satisfy a hungry camel. Sand, gravel, and dirty stone, are the different appearances they assume; but, on a nearer inspection, their different properties are discovered.

The porphyry shews itself by a fine purple sand without any gloss, and is agreeable to the eye. Native white sand and the gravel of the plains are mixed with it, and green unvariegated marble is frequently incorporated with the strata. Where the two veins meet, the marble is for a few inches brittle, but the porphyry, nevertheless, retains its hardness. The granite is obscured by sand of a dirty brown colour, which is produced by the sun's beams and the changes of weather, for, upon breaking it, the grey granite is discovered, with the reddish blush intermixed with black spots. The redness of this stone fades on being some time exposed to the air, but recovers it again by polishing the surface. Pompey's pillar seems to consist of stone of this nature; and it appears to be the most prevailing stone in Egypt. —Adjoining it are the best and most valuable marbles in general situated. The beautiful red marble, and that with white veins, is covered with sand of the same kind with the granite. The common green serpentine marble appears as if covered over with Brazil snuff. In the same neighbourhood are the marbles of the greatest value found in considerable abundance. The Isabella marble is also found, of two descriptions; one of a yellowish hue, which is called the quaker-colour, and the other of a bluish tinge, which is commonly termed the dove-colour. These seem to divide the respective mountains with the serpentine, and in the green marble is found different veins of jasper. In the mountains nearest the Nile is produced the verde antico, of a darkish green, with white irregular spots, but is discovered by none of the preceding marks by which the others are found. It is covered by a kind of blue fleaky stone, somewhat lighter than a slate, and more beautiful than most kinds of marble; and, when polished, assumes the appearance of volcanic lava. Where this valuable marble had been dug, the quarries were about 20 feet square. Beside these different kinds of marble which we have enumerated to be found here, there are pieces of African marble seen in different parts of Egypt, but no rocks or mountains of it have been discovered; though Mr. Bruce conjectures that it is found in the heart of some other coloured marble, and in strata like the jasper and verde antico, or perhaps in the mountains of Isabella marble.

'This prodigious and inexhaustible source of valuable stone, and of still more valuable marble, is placed upon a ridge, from whence an easy descent either to the Nile or the Red Sea is formed along the edges of this defile. They have such a gentle slope in either direction, that it would appear these roads are not natural, but artificial. To preserve this gradual descent whole mountains have been cut; so that this gentle slope is not more than one foot in fifty. It is probable that, in ancient times, the road to the Nile and the Red Sea was constructed in a similar manner with the waggon-ways from the coal-mines in this country, by which means the heaviest carriages might move with the least possible draught. Upon this or a similar method of conveyance must the difficulty be resolved, or how could those massy blocks and pillars be transported to Thebes, Memphis, and Alexandria? The level ground and hard-fixed gravel is adapted for the heaviest carriages, and will easily convey any weight whatever to the place of embarkation on the Nile.

'On the top of the highest of these mountains small buildings are

observed, in which the marks of fire are to be discerned; and from the reports of a late traveller, Mr. Browne, it is probable they have been used as signals. These structures are numerous, but are so rude and deformed by age as to prevent the historian from affixing a date to the time when they were erected. They were most probably used by the ancients either as light-houses for the sailor, beacons for a rallying point to the workmen in the different quarries, as signals in time of war, or may occasionally have served all these purposes.

'The ancients, in speaking of the riches of Egypt, enumerate, among its other productions, the valuable mountains of emeralds. Strabo says, there were mines of emeralds and precious stones that were worked by the Arabs. Ptolemy also mentions them; and these mines of emeralds are marked in the map of the patriarch, as being a thing never disputed. And when Pococke was in the neighbourhood of Coptos, he speaks of such a mountain with certainty, and says that the people found pieces of rock-crystal and precious stones very frequently, and that the root or refuse of emerald was found scattered about in great abundance, which was of a pale green. Also at Cairo, he says, they have an emerald, which they call the emerald of the Said.

'Whether these valuable mountains do exist in Egypt, as was reported by the ancients, and is still generally believed by the modern inhabitants of the country, we shall not positively assert; but the concurring testimony of Pococke, Neighburgh, and Volney, seems to favour the opinion of its existence. There is an island in the Red Sea, near Egypt, in north lat. 25. 3. upon which is situated a hill called the Mountain of Emeralds; and on Mr. Bruce visiting it he found splinters and pieces of a green pellucid crystalline substance, but veined, clouded, and not so hard as rock-crystal; which, though a mineral production, and a little harder than glass, yet he concluded that it was what the Moors called zumrud, and the Romans smaragdus. Near the base of this mountain are five shafts or pits, called the Zumrud Wells, from which it is said the ancients procured the emeralds. Though no travellers have explored these pits, it is more than probable they contain this valuable mineral, from the specimens which are to be found strewed about the island. And as pieces of a similar nature are found among the granite rocks in Egypt, this mineral is most probably to be found there likewise in abundance. The government of Egypt, for centuries past, has been in the hands of men under whom no enterprize of any shape could thrive: therefore it is not surprizing that the moderns are so ignorant of its existence; for if any speculator should have attempted to work a mine in Egypt, he would have done it at the risk of his life.

'In ancient Egypt, copper was found in great abundance, which was converted into the various purposes of the arts; but, in modern times, no mention is made of this metal being either worked or sought after by the inhabitants.

'Among the different kinds of stone and minerals, those found in the road to Suez, along the sandy plains which skirt the hills, and are called Egyptian flints, may properly be here described. They appear round, in the shape of pebbles, but of a rugged surface; they are of a very fine grain, and susceptible of a high polish. Some of them appear as if the figures of plants, shrubs, and landscapes, were painted on them. These stones appear calculated to become an article of

trade, having such a great variety of figures upon them; and, in so many different shades, it would appear that they might be converted into many purposes, both for use and elegance. Where these are found the bottom consists of a hard and sonorous calcareous stone.

'Not far from thence are those porous stones found which have been remarked by different travellers to resemble petrified wood. As they much resemble logs which are cut slanting at the ends, and full of holes, they would seem, without examination, to be actually petrifactions; but they are now found to be of a mineral substance.

'To the west of the Delta, in the desart of Shayat, are situated those two remarkable lakes, about 35 miles from Terane, which produce immense quantities of a mineral salt called natrum. This extraordinary production has only lately been used in Europe, and it appears that its different properties are not yet sufficiently ascertained. A few years ago the consumption of this article was such, that about 4,000 tons was exported from Egypt, the principal part of which came to France, and some to Great Britain. The principal lake from which the natrum is procured is about two miles in breadth and six in length, though it is to be observed that in winter there is more water in it than in summer. Indeed, towards the end of summer, the lakes are sometimes almost dry; and when the water has retired, the earth is covered over with a thick deposition of salt. The colour of the water is an imperfect red, and, where the bottom is visible, it appears as if covered with blood. Salt of the substance of six inches is the least thickness in the most shallow parts. The bed of the lakes is a natural trench, hard and stony; the ebbing in the summer, by means of evaporation, is the time when the greatest quantities are procured; the winter is the season for supplying the deficiency. The common thickness of the natrum, after the water is removed, is from two to three feet thick, as hard as a stone, and is broken with bars of iron. The surface of the earth near the lakes, and for ten miles round, partakes more or less of this mineral property. The soil is a course sand, and where it is impregnated with this peculiar quality the ground appears like a ploughed field after a slight frost. There is a mountain not far from the lakes, where natrum is found in insulated bodies near the surface, but of a considerably lighter colour than that produced from the lake, and containing a greater portion of alkali.

'This production of natrum, though but lately introduced into use in Europe, appears to have been known in ancient times by the general name of nitre. It is materially different from our nitre, and indeed of a nature contrary to our native salts, being a fixed alkali, and evidently appears to be of the same principle with that which arises from burning vegetables, and yet is capable of a regular crystallization. Wherever it is found it is naturally formed into flat cakes or crusts, which are of a spungy light substance, and, when pure, of a pale brownish white: but as its spungy texture subjects it to be alloyed by the adjoining earth, it is often of a deep dirty brown, and not unfrequently reddish.

'Natrum, whether native or purified, dissolves in a small quantity of water, and this solution serves the Egyptians to wash with; and, by mixing it with oil, forms a kind of soap. When it is reduced to

powder, and mixed with sand, flint, or any other stone of which crystal is the basis, glass is made. Gold heated red hot, and sprinkled with a little of this salt, melts much more easily than it otherwise would; as also does iron, copper, and the regulus of antimony. Mercury cannot be mixed with it, and indeed will not amalgamate with metals, if only a little of this salt is added. The properties which natrum possesses seem to have been known in the days of Solomon; for he compares the singing of songs with a heavy heart to the contrariety of vinegar and nitre; alluding to its abstersive qualities, and being used in washing and in baths.' P. 131.

This long extract will dispense us from any other; and we shall now proceed with our remarks, beginning with a few on the extract itself. Mr. Bruce could scarcely imagine that the ancients procured all their granite, porphyry, marble, and jasper from Egypt, while these substances are so common in other civilised countries. He might as well have informed us that Scotland contains a sufficient supply for the universe, which is very true; but why send so far for it? We suspect that the mountain of emeralds produces only green spar or fluor. The Egyptian *flints* are well known to be brown jaspers, with dark ferruginous infiltrations of various fantastic forms.

In p. 160 our author tells us of a Coptic work translated into English by the desire of lord North. This is certainly a gross mistake. In p. 168, &c. the author confounds the aquatic plant called the lotos with the lotos-tree of Africa, the fruit of which was eaten by the Lotophagi.

We shall pass over several other trivial errors, but cannot avoid observing that in some passages the language is so careless as to be destitute of common grammar; for example p. 372: 'Upon several of these coffins, found by Pococke, Shaw, Greaves, and other travellers, a great variety of hieroglyphics were beautifully painted *on them*, with a view, no doubt, of perpetuating the fame and virtues of the person inclosed.'

The author's theory, that languages become more rough as they are more distant from the equator, is attempted to be confirmed by the Laplandic, which is, on the contrary, proverbially soft. There is, in truth, no ground for general theory on the subject, many Oriental languages being extremely harsh. The account of the tower of Belus, from Stackhouse, (p. 409) seems erroneous, as there is no evidence that the pyramids were used for astronomical observations, and the tower had a colossal statue at the top; but perhaps Mr. Franklin may think that the eyes of this statue were telescopes. The grottoes near Asiout, mentioned by Lucas, deserve further investigation, as they seem to have escaped the notice of latter travellers.

Upon the whole, this little volume is a decent compilation, and may afford more amusement and instruction to the general reader than Rollin's account of Egypt in his Ancient History.

ART. VII.—*Sermons on various Subjects. By Samuel Stanhope Smith, D.D. President of the College of New-Jersey, America.* 8*vo.* 7*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Mawman. 1801.

SERMONS from the *new world* might be expected to convey some new ideas; but this volume follows the European mode of sermonising; and we cannot perceive any of those traces of originality which might be supposed to arise from the distance of our author's residence from the old seats of theology. He is aware, indeed, of the want of unction in general in this species of composition in England; and entertaining a due sense of the superiority of the French in the pulpit in this respect, he professes a wish to transfuse it into his own discourses. We cannot flatter him, however, with any strong proofs of success. Whether the Americans are of the same cold and reflecting dispositions with ourselves, or that the nature of Protestantism is less adapted to the pathetic and instructive style, we see few traits of the eloquence which distinguish a Massillon and a Bossuet. The writer indeed cannot be said to want matter; for, in consequence of his being a believer in the eternity of hell torments, he has exercised himself upon the sublime and terrible with a very liberal scope.

The pains of hell are presented to us in a sermon on the rich man and Lazarus, and its wretched inhabitants are said to be employed in cursings and the bitterest rage.

'The most dreadful idea in the torments of hell is, that they shall be for ever and ever. The furnace of the wrath of God burns with unquenchable fire. When the guilty soul surveys the horrours of her destiny, and casting her view forward into futurity can find no period, no mitigation of her agonies, what despair must overwhelm her! Dreadful is the present! but oh! the future is hopeless!' P. 99.

The oh! we presume from the preface, was uttered in a very lengthened strain, and 'with the warmth which the preacher endeavoured to support in the delivery:' yet the ahs and ohs, and such kind of expletives, make but a small part of the animation of the writer's favourite French authors. The rich man's situation, as presented in Scripture, is scarcely aggravated by the author's reproaching him as making 'his bed in hell. From the flattering arms of unsuspected joys he descends to the cruel embraces of everlasting flames.' On the thought on which Massillon dwells with so much eloquence—the condescension of Christ in executing the plan of man's redemption—we see in this work but faint traces of the original.

'Infinite condescension! Nothing but surpassing love would have conceived the thought; nothing but omnipotent powers could have

executed the plan of celestial mercy—the eternal Son of the Highest became an infant of days! The object of the worship of heaven herded in a stall with beasts! He, who held the throne of the universe, had not where to lay his head! The king of angels and of men expired like a slave! And for whom were all these astonishing sacrifices? For worms of the dust, placed by nature at an infinite distance from the seat of his glory, who might justly have been blotted out of the universe! For sinners, who had turned into rebellion against their Maker the powers which he had bestowed. "God commendeth his love to us in that, while we were yet sinners, Christ died for us." *Oh!* "the heighth, and the depth, and the length, and the breadth of the love of Christ that passeth knowledge!" Of this great and interesting subject a sincere penitent will entertain the most affecting views, when profoundly penetrated with the sentiment of his own unworthiness. Humility exalts the grace of the Redeemer. Turn then your meditations, in the same moment, upon your own sins, and upon the riches of redeeming mercy. Let the waters of repentance and love flow together. United, they form the most precious stream; they fill the soul of the believing communicant with the sincerest and the most tender delight.' P. 167.

The situation of our Saviour on the cross affords us full scope for the introduction of some peculiar schemes of theology; but it is a subject which requires the hand of a master. In the following account we perceive a confusion only of images and ideas, which can scarcely stand the more refined test of an European audience.

'What was visible in his sufferings was infinitely the smallest part. The anguish of dying in him arose, not from mangled limbs and tortured nerves, but from a full sense of the holy indignation of God against sin. Although sin was only imputed to him, its punishment was real; for "the Lord laid on him the iniquity of us all." He felt not indeed those remorseful horrours which agitate and convulse the conscience of perishing guilt; but the fires of divine justice, entering into his holy soul like a sacrificing flame, consumed it as a *whole burnt offering* for our transgressions. The fury of his insulting enemies, the cruelty and ingenuity of torture, he could have borne with serene and unshaken constancy. But abandoned, at the period of his greatest distress, by the consolations of his father's love, and made to drink the fearful cup of our iniquities, he was overwhelmed, he was utterly exhausted, and for one terrible instant almost sinking in despair, he cried out, "My God! My God! why hast thou forsaken me?" This dreadful cry was the consummation of his sufferings; the sacrifice was now offered; justice had exacted its claims; the purchase of our salvation was completed; he "bowed his head," and said, "it is finished." Astonishing efforts of divine love! In the moment in which he was about to engage in these tremendous conflicts, he instituted this holy festival to call to the remembrance of his faithful disciples, through the most distant ages, his sufferings, his sacrifices, and his zeal for their salvation.—Believers! can you review this scene, at once so tender and so awful, without a thousand

solemn and interesting recollections? Do you not feel your bosoms agitated with all the holy tumults of piety, while you contemplate the affliction of these last moments—the compassion with which he looked upon his sorrowing companions; the fearful array of death, with which he was encompassed; the agonies of the cross; and (what the Son of God alone could endure) the suspension of his Father's presence, and the positive fires of his wrath against sin, which drank up the soul of this divine victim?' P. 171.

The similies are often far-fetched and too abundant. 'Life is said to be a fountain fed by a thousand streams, and it perishes if one is dried up;—it is a silver cord, twisted with a thousand strings, and breaks totally if one is broken.' Poor reason is introduced with a pathetic Ah! to make a lasting impression.

'Ah! vain and purblind reason! It resembles a proud insect, which, because it can emit a feeble and delusive lustre in the dark, should pretend to eclipse the sun, and say "*I* will enlighten the universe." Children of ignorance and vanity! the light of eternity shall bring a dreadful refutation of your errours. The crowd of your victims, whom you will there meet, while they demonstrate your guilt with a fearful evidence, will add augmented horrours to your condemnation!' P. 313.

We have presented sufficient specimens for the reader to form some opinion of these discouses, which, if they gratify the public taste, are to be followed by others of a similar kind. They have been inspected, we are informed, by 'two eminent divines, who regard them as the finest specimens of oratory, as well as the strongest incitements to true religion and morality.' We are unfortunate in not being able to see them through the same optics. We behold indeed a vast number of interjections and periods, terminating with marks of admiration; yet the finest specimens of oratory we are acquainted with have few of these, and are rather celebrated for grandeur of conception and simplicity of style—ornaments which are certainly not the prevailing characteristics of these discourses: nor are the incitements to true religion and morality, which the Scriptures hold out to us, advanced in so argumentative a manner as to justify, in our opinion, any part of the exalted eulogy passed upon them by those on whose verdict the publisher seems to have placed an undue reliance. But if they be not the best specimens of pulpit oratory, they are far removed from the opposite extremity. Though they will not raise the writer to the level of a Blair or a Fenelon, yet we readily grant them to proceed from the pen of one far above the ordinary rank of preachers. We might have been more pleased with the author's talents if he had advanced less in his own favour.

ART. VIII.—*The Siege of Acre; an Epic Poem; in Six Books. By Mrs. Cowley.* 8*vo.* 9*s. sewed.* Debrett. 1801.

THE splendid achievements performed in Syria by sir Sidney Smith constitute an interesting feature of the present war. Politicians of every party have dwelt upon them with astonishment, and they have at length aroused the long dormant muse of Mrs. Cowley, who has made them the basis of an epic poem in six books.

It is the dictate of nature that the heroism of the brave should make a strong impression on the hearts of the fair. We were not, therefore, surprised at reading that 'the subject forced itself to her pen, and that she could not resist it.'

We shall proceed to offer a brief analysis of this poem, which was thus written under the happiest auspices, when the authoress was so strongly impressed by the dignity of her theme as to be incapable of restraining her poetic enthusiasm. The different passages we shall occasionally select will convey to our readers an idea of the manner in which she has executed her design.

The first book opens with an invocation to Truth, and an apostrophe to the city of Acre. Deviating from the common rules of epic poetry, Mrs. Cowley then commences her story in the natural order of the history itself:—she narrates the triumphant return of Bonaparte from Italy to Paris, and his first conception of the subjugation of Egypt. Adverting to his preparatory inquiries into the topography of the Said, she introduces this topic by the following couplet, the interesting simplicity of which will not escape the notice of the discerning reader.

> 'Not to be rash, and to make certain SURE,
> The chief resolved fresh labours to endure.' P. 7.

She thus describes the retinue of literati who accompanied the Gallic chief to Africa:

> 'Thus, when towards the sea his forces drew,
> Bidding to tortured Europe an adieu,
> Globes, maps, and travels, every waggon bore,
> And plans of fortresses an ample store,
> Sçavans and heroes were filed off by troops,
> Here soldiers march'd; there, volume-writing groupes:
> What could impede a scheme thus sagely plann'd?
> Poets, philosophers, his purpose fann'd!' P. 8.

Having curiously touched upon the conquests of Malta, Mrs. Cowley traces the course of Bonaparte to the Egyptian strand. Passing rapidly over his victories in the land of the Pharaohs and the Ptolemies, she immortalises his march through the de-

sert into Syria, and celebrates, with equal immortality, the capture of the transports which conveyed to Acre the French artillery. This important event she narrates in the following lines:

'Instant the Tigre weigh'd; her powerful guns
Arrest the veering fleet, which prudent runs;
The Theseus aided the commander's plan,
Corvettes and transports soon no longer ran;—
Seven captured vessels in old Acre's bay,
Seem'd but a summer-eve's heroic play;
But ah! not play was found their glorious freight,
Vast carronades, mortars of monstrous weight
To batter Acre's towers the vessels bore,
And implements of war—profuse the store!' P. 15.

We are next gratified by the picture of the French troops descending from the Syrian mountains to form the siege of Acre, and are led with wonderful precision through the whole process of opening the trenches, and mining and countermining. Our readers will perhaps be amused by the perusal of the following passage, in which the French, driven out of their subterraneous works, are, by an original metaphor, compared to foxes or rabbits burrowing in the earth, while the gallant British are likened to terriers or ferrets pursuing them.

'Keeping their way the French *unearth'd* appear,
The galling Britons close upon the rear:' P. 24.

At length a storm arises, which drives sir Sidney from the coast. The fury of this storm is thus admirably painted with all the bold sublimity of a *school-boy*:

'The giddy ships like *tops* she whirls around;
Now high they hang in air, now drop profound.' P. 26.

During the absence of the English the invaders make a fresh attack upon the town, but are repulsed. Mrs. Cowley represents the Turks as, on this occasion, adopting a very classical mode of defence.

'The neighb'ring mounts their marble contents yield,
Their marble contents bound upon the field—
Not harmless bound, each bears a wound along,
Nor falls unaim'd upon the shrinking throng;
The thin air cleft murm'ring and hoarse it sings,
And round the whizzing murder sighing clings.' P. 27.

The two last lines, we apprehend, will long exercise the skill of critics in the developement of their meaning. They are daringly obscure: but our poetess seems well aware that there are critics who have enumerated obscurity as one source of the sublime.

In the second book the fair minstrel presents us with an episode, containing the story of Osmyn, who, at the commencement of the siege, had been only three months united to the beautiful Ira. While her spouse is engaged in defence of the town, the lady withdraws into her inner apartment.

'Meantime her peering nurse the fair one sought,
And *in the act* the startled Ira caught—.' P. 35.

In this wicked age, which some have denominated the age of reason, but which, we humbly conceive, may, with much more propriety, be styled the age of adultery, our readers will be too apt to imagine, from such a phrascology, that Ira was taking a very unwarrantable advantage of her husband's absence. But no such thing, modest readers! the fair Ira was only employed in arraying herself in male attire, being resolved to follow her Osmyn to the fight. Having completed her disguise, she repairs to the ramparts, where she has the happiness to see the foe discomfited; for thus it follows:

'At length th' invaders, taught to be discreet,
Silenced their bombs, and sounded a retreat!' P. 39.

We here enter our serious protest against any irreverent mirth which may be excited in giddy minds by the equivocal sound conveyed in the middle of the second line of this couplet, and caution our readers against so gross and *fundamental* a mistake.

On the ensuing day Ira again repairs to the scene of action, where

'A bold *sortie* at length the warriors crave.' P. 41.

The fair soldier is hurried through the gate with the crowd, and is unfortunately slain by one of the assailants. The news of her death nerves Osmyn's arm with fury. The effects of his wrath Mrs. Cowley describes in the following hyperbole, in which she exercises the plenitude of the poet's right to the tenure of *quidlibet audendi*.

'Ira!—he cried, whene'er his sabre rose;
Battalions fell—'twas Ira gave the blows.' P. 45.

We shall quote the exordium of the third book, as a crust for the grammarians.

'Spirit of war! thy attributes so fell,
How, twined with gen'rous virtues, canst thou dwell—.' P. 49.

Tracing the thread of the story, we find that Achmet Pacha, being dispirited by the waste of his troops, is encouraged by the arrival of Elcanor at the head of some Syrian Christians. The

horrors of the siege are now renewed, and the fate of the gallant Osmyn is narrated in the following interesting description:

'The mortar's glowing arch inflamed the sky,
Up rose the mischief, sparkling to the eye:
More lofty still, the brilliant woe had flown,
Had it, its own illustrious errand known,
Illustrious sorrow—rustling—down it brought,
A deeper grief scarce liv'd in Acre's thought;
Osmyn its victim!—in one instant fled
The soul, which such courageous virtues fed!
Yes, Osmyn welt'ring fell—O! vulture Death,
Thou shouldst have glutted on ignoble breath.' P. 61.

During the heat of the contest, the English fleet returns to its station:

'The eager ships, as though inspir'd by soul,
Bend their high topsails to the dangerous goal.' P. 64.

The English captain lands amidst the hottest fire; and the French being again repressed, Bonaparte summons a council of war, and makes a speech to his general officers. Like a determined hero, he commences with a stout affidavit:

'Ne'er to capitulate, an oath I swear,
Which, if pronounced, would freeze the torrid air!' P. 75.

Having thus mentally sworn this tremendous oath, which was too awful to fall even from the lips of an atheist, Bonaparte summons Kleber from Damascus.

The commencement of the fourth book affords another exercise for the grammatical student.

'Wide flew the gates of heaven. The car of Morn,
On golden clouds and rosy vapours borne
Came forth; *illustrious pioneer of day*,
Who had forsaken now the bowers of May;
A newer month engross'd his rosy smiles,
And newer hours his westward path beguiles,
Weave for him pictures in June's brightest looms,
And spread before him all their richest blooms.' P. 81.

Our readers will, no doubt, be struck with the ingenuity of the thought, which represents Morn as the 'pioneer of day,' and the novelty of the comparison suggested between the aforesaid Morn and a fickle wooer, who capriciously flies from beauty to beauty.

Mrs. Cowley proceeds to celebrate the attack and defence of a tower of no common fame.

'*From* thence our Richard's battle-axe was hurl'd,
And sent a flash around the pensile world;
Its lustre heightens in each distant age,
Spangling dull History's laborious page,
On heavy periods throws extrinsic light,
And brings dark ages forward to the sight.' P. 84.

We apprehend that the idea of the flash proceeding from the collision of Richard's battle-axe upon the Pagan helmets, illumining the dark pages of history, is as novel as it is ingenious.

The tower in question is saved from destruction by the efforts of the British, whose valour scorns all opposition; for, to quote the animated reflexion of our authoress,

'Ah! what are elements when heroes start?' P. 87.

On the ensuing day we have another battle still more desperate than the former. As to sir Sidney and his gallant associates—

'Cutting their way, each side they dart their steel,
Spring o'er the bullets, nor vibration feel!' P. 88.

Reflecting on the imminent perils from which they were preserved, the poetess exclaims:

'Surely some host celestial skim'd the walls,
The pointed cannon turn'd, or caught the flying balls!' P. 88.

The office here attributed to attendant spirits, of catching the shot, is certainly novel, but, in the present improvement of military tactics, scarcely necessary; for we remember having read of a British serjeant, who, by his own natural powers, performed this important piece of service, the catching of musket and cannon balls, during the late expedition into Holland; and by all the laws of the epic, it is inconsistent to have recourse to supernatural agency in cases where human or terrestrial means are able to accomplish the effect demanded.

The war is continued with various fortune through the fifth book—one of the most splendid passages of which contains a description of the powers of modern artillery.

'Those thunder at the walls; these beat the tower;
One flings high balls; one aims the mischief lower;
This an ellipsis makes: that, darts a line
True as the quadrant's when, with skill divine,
A Herschel measures some discovered sun,
Or find where comets their aphelion run.
Ye catapults, ye batt'ring rams of Rome,
Whose blows made every hostile town a tomb,

And carried terror to earth's utmost bound—
What powers had ye, in modern wars not found;
And in what lustrum of your conq'ring page
Was practised force, concealed from this late age?
Names may be sunk. Great sounds how soon ye fade!
The gun—the mortar—howitzer—carronade,
Vie with strong rams; vast catapults surpass,
With greater swiftness greater powers amass.' P. 111.

The personification of the ancient catapults and battering-rams, and the prosopopœia by which they are addressed, is certainly a flight 'beyond the hackney-critic's reach.'

In the sixth book our authoress narrates Bonaparte's last and most desparate attack upon the town, and his insidious attempt to surprise the place while its defenders were reposing under the faith of a truce. The French being foiled in their treachery,

'Their works forsaken, and encampments prone,
The next achievement is, that they are gone!' P. 140.

Yes, reader, they are positively gone, and all is triumph and gladness;—for thus Mrs. Cowley divinely adjoineth:

'No more their wasted camp day's streaks disclose,
Or on the night the sullen watch-word flows,
No out-post with deep tone demands *qui vive?*
No pickets hid by somb'rous shades, relieve.' P. 143.

Elcanor now returns in peace to his abode, where he is received with transport by his daughters. The expressive eyes of one of these young ladies give occasion to the following animated apostrophe:

'O magic circlets! which can transports dart,
Then strike with with'ring ray the sick'ning heart,
Speak in celestial language to the soul,
Or all its powers with rigid beams controul!
Nature too fond bade speech its wonders try,
When such, the powerful syntax of the eye.' P. 145.

We can assure our readers, that, copious as we have been in our selections from this poem, we could with ease have culled from it an abundance of passages of similar merit with those we have already exhibited. But enough is as good as a feast.

ART. IX.—*Annals of Medicine, for the Year* 1800: *exhibiting a concise View of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine and Medical Philosophy. By Andrew Duncan, Sen. M.D. and Andrew Duncan, Jun. M.D. Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh. Vol. V.* 8vo. 8*s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1801.

WITH regret we must again remark that this work is, in no respect, correspondent with its title: it is not the Annals of Medicine for the Year 1800. The works noticed are of an earlier date: they do not afford a view of the discoveries of the immediate year—the more prominent features of the science adverted to—the discriminating circumstances in medicine which characterise the given period. The choice of the works analysed is, we think also, reprehensible, and the share of attention which they occupy disproportioned to their merit. In a long review of Dr. C. Smyth's account of the effects of nitrous vapour, it might have been, at least, remarked in the *Annals* of Medicine, that the same year had produced authorities equally high and respectable on the opposite side. To Mr. James Anderson's few facts and observations on the yellow fever of the West Indies should have been added an account of some works designed to prove that this disease is *not*, in any case, owing to imported specific infection. Two publications of this kind appeared in the same year with the foregoing. To a work of this class we look for an impartial retrospect of subjects discussed within the period specified, and not for laboured accounts on one side only—and accounts, too, of works that did not appear within the time predicated.

The choice of works and the proportional space allotted to them, we have already asserted to be reprehensible. Dr. Parry's Inquiry into the Cause of Angina Pectoris appeared to us, and the greater number of practitioners we have conversed with, to be a trifling performance. Of the three cases adduced to support the doctrine, two were different diseases; and, in the only real case of angina pectoris, no ossifications of the coronaries were observable. In Dr. Samuel Black's case, from the Memoirs of the Medical Society, ossifications of these arteries were discovered;—but it may be asked, in what part of the heart have not bony concretions been detected, in those who have died of angina pectoris? We believe the analysis of the case is as extensive as the case itself.

Dr. Cappe's Account of a Case of disordered Respiration, resembling Angina Pectoris, certainly was spasmodic from debility. It is taken almost entire from the Medical Journal. Preparations of copper have been successfully used in all spasmodic cases, and particularly in the angina pectoris: probably all the metals have an antispasmodic, perhaps a tonic, power. Dr.

Cappe's is a useful and ingenious paper, though composed with too much ostentation, and pregnant with the speculations a little too finely spun out.

Dr. Beer's essay, describing a Method of extracting the Capsule of the Crystalline Lens, which is generally left behind, we may not have another opportunity of noticing. This proposal, which is very ingenious, seems however to require very particular dexterity, and probably will not be commonly employed. The blindness from the remaining capsule is styled the after-cataract; and some observations of Dr. Beer, on the different species of this disease, are very properly subjoined, from a German journal.

Dr. Haygarth's tract on Imagination, as exemplified by the fictitious Tractors of Mr. Perkins, follows; but the Annals would have lost no portion of their value had this been omitted.

Dr. Ferrier's essay on the Medical Properties of the Foxglove is next analysed at full length: followed by Mr. Aikin's Concise View of all the most important Facts that have appeared concerning the Cow-Pox. These will be the subjects of future remark.

Dr. Stütz' Method of curing Tetanus, in consequence of Gunshot Wounds, may be productive of a valuable improvement. It is extracted from Hartenkeil's journal, and is said to have been suggested by some galvanic experiments. The method consists in giving alkalis and opium alternately, as well as bathing in a ley of wood-ashes, to which two ounces of caustic pot-ash are added. A drachm of purified vegetable alkali was dissolved in six ounces of distilled water, and sweetened with half an ounce of syrup. Of this mixture the first patient took half an ounce every two hours, and ten grains of opium daily. Of the latter he had before taken, without relief, a much larger quantity; viz. about thirty-six grains with eighteen of musk, within twenty-four hours: in other cases the alkali was given in greater doses. The remedy appears promising, and merits a trial; but the most confident assertions have of late been so often followed by complete disappointment, that our scepticism on most subjects has been greatly increased. We have feared to trust any one—we almost said 'in our haste,' &c.

Professor Friederich's account of the Rheumatic Paralysis of the Face, cured by Electricity, is more flimsy than any thing we have lately seen. What could have procured it the honour of a place in the Annals of Medicine we know not, except as a specimen of epidemic absurdity.

The Researches of Mr. Davy, respecting the exhilarating Effects of Nitrous Oxyd, we shall have occasion to notice.—Dr. Creve's and Mr. Ritter's works on galvanism, with the extracts from Mr. Nicholson's journal on the same subject, are new, and not likely to recur to us in any other form. We had intended

to have given a full account of these extracts; but the experiments are so miscellaneous, so truly indiscriminate, and undetermined in their views, that we could not abbreviate the language of the different authors. We shall select, however, a general and scientific account of the subject, from a passage extracted from Mr. Nicholson's Journal.

'The pile invented by Sig. Volta is constructed by building up any number of pieces of silver, zinc, and wet card or cloth, or other porous substance, in the following manner: silver, zinc, card; silver, zinc, card, and so on, until the whole number intended to be made use of be employed. The pile must be terminated by silver at the one end, and by zinc at the other. In this state it will afford a perpetual current of electricity through any conductor communicating between its upper and lower plates. If this conductor be an animal, it will receive an electric shock as often as the touch is made, by which the circuit is completed. This shock resembles the weak charge of a battery of immense surface; and its intensity is so low, that it cannot make its way through the dry skin. The hands must, therefore, be well wetted, and a piece of metal grasped in each hand, or the extremities of the pile should communicate with separate vessels of water, in which the hands may be plunged. The current of galvanism continues while the circle is complete, and the action is exceedingly painful where the skin is broke, more especially when the wounds are on the minus side of the apparatus;—a fact also observed in the common electric spark.

'The shock is stronger the more numerous the pieces. It is also stronger when the porous substances are soaked in salt water or alkaline lees. When zinc is used, salt water is preferable; when tin is employed in place of zinc, alkaline lees.

'Mr. Carlisle provided a pile of seventeen half-crowns, and an equal number of pieces of zinc and pasteboard soaked in salt water. This pile did not affect Bennet's electrometer, but repeated experiments with the revolving doubler shewed that the silver end was in the minus, and the zinc end in the plus state. As Mr. Carlisle observed a disengagement of gas round the end of a wire, of which the contact with the upper plate was made sure by a drop of water, Mr. Nicholson thought of breaking the circuit by the substitution of a tube of water between two wires. A glass tube was therefore filled with water, and closed at each end with a cork. Through each cork a brass wire was introduced, so that their ends in the water were distant an inch and three-fourths. The other ends were applied to the extreme plates of a pile of thirty-six sets, and the wires were denominated the silver wire and the zinc wire, according to the metal with which each is in contact. From the silver wire a stream of minute bubbles immediately began to flow, and the point of the zinc wire became tarnished. The product of gas during two hours and a half was two-thirtieths of a cubic inch. It exploded, when mixed with an equal quantity of common air, by the application of a lighted wax-thread. When the tube was filled with tincture of litmus, it was changed to a red colour around the zinc wire. The decomposition of water also goes on between each pair of plates, the zinc becoming

in two, or at the utmost three days, so much oxydated as to render it necessary to take the pile to pieces, in order to clean them.

Mr. Nicholson found that the repetition of the series had more effect than the enlargement of surface, and that the thickness of the plates probably adds nothing to the force. When two platina wires were used, the silver wire gave out a plentiful stream of fine bubbles, and the zinc wire one less plentiful. The phenomena with gold wires were the same. When the zinc wire was of gold, and the silver wire of brass, each gave out a stream of gas, without oxydation, as before; but when the silver wire was gold, and the zinc wire was brass, this last was oxydated, as if both were brass. Mr. Nicholson also made an imperfect attempt to obtain the gases emitted from the silver and zinc wires separately.

'Mr. Cruickshank constructed a pile from which sparks could be taken at pleasure, and a small report or snap could be heard, and which sensibly affected a gold-leaf electrometer. He also found that a solution of muriate of ammonia answered better than water for moistening the interposed papers. When the tube contained a metallic solution, the metal was precipitated in its metallic form, and adhered to the silver wire.' P. 297.

Mr. Cruickshank's conclusions also deserve notice.

'From his experiments, Mr. Cruickshank draws the following conclusions:

'1. That hydrogen gas, mixed with a very small portion of oxygen and ammonia, is disengaged at the silver wire, of whatever nature that wire may be, provided the fluid operated on be pure water.

'2. That the same wire, when metallic solutions are employed, revives the metal, and disengages no hydrogen gas.

'3. That of the earthy solutions, magnesia and argil are the only ones decomposed.

'4. That the zinc wire, when of gold or platina, disengages oxygen gas with a little azote and nitrous acid, the gases being in quantity more than one-third of the hydrogen disengaged during the same time by the silver wire.

'5. That when the zinc wire is silver, or any imperfect metal, the wire itself is oxydated or dissolved, and a small portion of oxygenous gas is likewise given out.

'6. That the gases obtained from both wires, when of gold or platina, being exploded over mercury, nearly disappear, and form water, with a small residue of azote.' P. 299.

It may be in general remarked, that galvanism is an electrical operation, and that its principal effects are those of decomposing water, with the subsequent appearances resulting from the affinities of the component parts of the water. Beyond this we cannot yet advance; though it is obvious that the electrical fluid is influenced, in these operations, by some laws apparently different from those which it obeys in other instances. That the effect is a chemical one, according to Fabbroni, we can scarcely

admit; though it appears probable, that, in every galvanic experiment on the human body, some decomposition of its fluids takes place. It is, however, by no means clear that electricity itself may not operate in the same way, and that, when lightning is fatal, it may not be in consequence of the disengaged hydrogen of the animal fluids. With Mr. Davy's generalisation of the galvanic facts, we shall also conclude this section of the Annals.

'1. Zinc, whether connected with silver in single galvanic circles, or constituting the plates of the galvanic pile, seems to undergo no oxydation at common temperatures, as long as the water in contact with it is pure. By pure water, Mr. Davy means water holding in solution no oxygen gas, no nitrous gas, and no acids.

'2. The oxydation of the zinc plates of the galvanic pile takes place, wherever the water in contact with them holds atmospheric air, or oxygen, or nitrous gas, or nitrous acid, or marine acid, &c. in solution.

'3. When the zinc in contact with water, holding in solution substances containing loose oxygen or acids, is oxydated, these substances are altered, or they exert some chemical affinities. The galvanic pile consumes oxygen gas, and the oxygen of atmospheric air. Wetted zinc in contact with nitrous gas converts it into nitrous oxyd and ammonia.

'4. The galvanic pile of Sig. Volta seems incapable of acting when the water between the plates is pure.

'5. The pile acts when the water between the plates holds in solution atmospheric air, or oxygen, or nitrous gas, or nitrous acid, or marine acid.

'6. The power of action of the pile of Volta appears to be, in great measure, proportioned to the power of the conducting fluid substances between the double plates, to oxydate the zinc.

'7. It seems reasonable to conclude, that though with our present quantity of facts we are unable to explain the exact mode of operation, that the oxydation of the zinc in the pile, and the chemical changes connected with it, are somehow the causes of the electrical effects it produces.' P. 308.

The medical observations are, as usual, of no great value, if we except Dr. Hamilton's remarks on Convulsions, during the latter months of Pregnancy and Labour, which form the first article. Dr. Hamilton thinks eclampsia distinct from epilepsy, and that it merits a particular attention. The fatality of this disease, in general, is well known, and the inefficacy of the usual medicines frequently lamented. Opium is particularly injurious, in our author's practice;—and we have certainly found it by no means useful in our own. The method of treatment which has succeeded chiefly with Dr. Hamilton, besides the previous operation of letting blood from the arm, consists in giving camphor, and, where there is any kind of œdema, the digitalis. In general, we have attempted to bring on labour as soon as possible, and have

hereby often succeeded in saving the lives of both mother and child:—sometimes, however, both have been lost: and we shall again take occasion to speak of Dr. Hamilton's proposed plan, when we have fairly made the experiment. We believe, with him, that, during pregnancy, the mobility of the system is increased, and, of course, that pregnant women are more than usually subject to convulsions. As we have stated his opinion of the distinction of the eclampsia from epilepsy, we shall add his peculiarly clear and discriminated description of the former disease.

'The eclampsia, then, which happens during pregnancy, and during labour, is to be regarded as a disease of a peculiar nature, bearing no strict analogy to any other disease of this climate, except the convulsions of children, which take place during the first four years of life, and are occasioned by the process of dentition, or violent irritations in the alimentary canal, or certain cutaneous affections.

'The symptoms which precede the fits are very distinctly marked. They consist of violent lancinating pain in the head or in the stomach, in which latter case there is deadly sickness, impaired or depraved vision, tinnitus aurium, deep sighing, and low delirium. The most ordinary combination of these symptoms is pain in the head, tinnitus aurium, and dimness of sight, or the sensation of fire flashing before the eyes. This combination is common to the disease, both during pregnancy and labour. But pain in the stomach, with deadly sickness, and a kind of crampish sensation, is peculiar to convulsions during pregnancy, and deep sighing and low delirium precede the disease only where it occurs during labour. There is another symptom which takes place exclusively under the latter circumstance, and that is violent shivering. When this happens during the second stage of labour, and is preceded or succeeded by great irregularity of the pulse, convulsions inevitably follow, if proper means be not speedily adopted to prevent them.' p. 326.

Dr. Hull's Observations on the Use of Argentum Nitratum, in the Cure of Epilepsy and Chorea, relate chiefly to the dose. He has seldom had occasion to use more than a grain and a half daily. The medicine, in our author's hands, seems to have been serviceable in this complaint: it has been tried, however, by other authors, and in larger quantities, without any success whatever.

Letters, by Dr. Drennan of Dublin, and Dr. Paterson of Londonderry, on the Yellow Fever, follow. The former proposes to destroy the fomes of the contagion by heat, resting on the idea, that the plague usually disappears during hot weather. He supposes, that, as a certain degree of heat may cherish the infection, a greater may destroy it. Dr. Drennan estimates the question, Whether the disease be imported or indigenous?—of little comparative importance. Dr. Paterson, on the contrary,

thinks it highly material, but adds nothing to former observations; and, with respect to heat, leaves the consideration to a future letter. Both these gentlemen have filled pages with very little advantage to science or their own credit.

Dr. Hall strongly supports Dr. Brown's practice of cold applications to the head. He hesitates, however, about the power of resisting the effects of cold attributed to maniacs. He thinks them only insensible to its effects, as they suffer much from chilblains. In fact, the vessels leading to the brain are alone excited to extraordinary action; while the irritability of the inferior limbs, and the activity of the circulation, in both extremities, are much diminished.

Dr. Adam Freer has communicated an account of the Indian Method of curing the Ring-worm; viz. by a decoction of the fresh bark, roots, tops, or flowers of the cassunda, (cassia sophera of Linnæus). This remedy is also said to be useful in the herpes miliaris of Sauvages; and perhaps, as Dr. Freer observes, may be advantageously extended to other cachexies and discolourations.

Mr. Lawson informs us, that, in his trials with the Ærugo Æris, recommended in the glanders of horses, the remedy had little, if any, effect; nor was it of service in destroying the botts, though given to a great extent, and for a considerable time.

Dr. Ross has communicated some Cases, of no great importance or novelty, treated at the Dispensary and Lunatic Asylum at Montrose:—and Dr. Albers a case of Croop, cured by calomel and frequently repeated emetics. A grain of calomel was given every two hours. The same author relates a case of inversio uteri, which terminated fatally; but the uterus had been returned half an hour, and the inversion occurred in consequence of a very rapid labour, without any mismanagement. The woman died suddenly, without any apparent reason for the fatal event.

Dr. Chisholm has found the oxygenated muriat of pot-ash and the nitrous acid singularly serviceable in yaws and leprosy, as well as in a curious case of violent spasm in the muscles of the face. After a nervous head-ach, every action of the muscles, either in eating or speaking, was attended with a convulsive motion, which was cured by the oxygenated muriat of pot-ash. The disease returned on omitting the remedy, and again yielded to it.

A singular disease was observed at Grenada in 1790. The situation in which it occurred was intensely hot, and exposed to a current of chilling air, through a ravine. It was marked by dulness, a quick pulse, dyspnœa, anxiety, and, during the paroxysm, for it seemed to intermit, a violent palpitation of the

heart. On dissection, polypi were found in the heart. The disease was properly attributed to debility; conjoined with a chill on the surface, which drove a larger portion of blood to this organ than it was able to repel. After bleeding, to take off the load, mercury seemed highly beneficial. The polypus was evidently the effect of the fever.

In the section of 'Medical News' are various communications concerning Vaccina, and the progress of vaccine inoculation, in different countries. The disease among the cows is scarcely known in Scotland.

Mr. Wise has destroyed ring-worms by the application of the empyreumatic oil of wheat: and finds the cuprum vitriolatum, in the dose of about a grain and quarter, useful in blenorrhagia and syphilis.

Some uninteresting communications follow. We may, however, mention the use of the rhus radicans, in the extract prepared by slow evaporation, in cases of paralysis of the lower extremities; and Dr. Dancer's new work, entitled The Jamaica Practice of Physic. Some other works of promise are also announced.

In the year 1799 the range of the thermometer at Edinburgh was from 77° to 20°. The mean heat was 48°; the mean heat of April 44°. The barometer was from 30.45 to 28.25 inches; the mean height, 29.58.; the rain, 30.168 inches; while, in London, for the same year, it was only 19.662 inches. An alphabetical table of contents for the first lustrum, viz. the first five volumes of the Medical Annals, is subjoined, and a similar assistance is promised at the end of each lustrum.

ART. X.—*The Life of David Garrick, Esq. By Arthur Murphy, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards.* Wright. 1801.

WE occasionally meet with circumstances that disarm criticism of its scourge, and in which the possession of impartiality must be bought by the sacrifice of those feelings which are highly honourable to human nature. Two old favourites stand before us, who have often beguiled our tedious moments, who have communicated many a heartfelt delight in fictitious scenes; and we cannot consent, in a moment of cynic severity, to dismiss those pages as trifling and jejune which relate to what has given us prior pleasure. We are indeed impartial when we say that the veteran in dramatic scenes cannot be callous in the detail before us. To add novelty to events so often described is not easy; yet the picture here presented is not occasionally without a new colouring: to give interest to a tale so often told is beyond the powers of genius. But we grow warm with the subject, and 'again we slay

the slain.'—In short, whether it be the theme, the manner, the recollection of what so much delighted us, when delight was perhaps more easily purchased, we need not stay to determine; but we *have* been pleased with these volumes, and we think the reader will find many parts of them not uninteresting, and will sometimes lay them down unwillingly. On the other hand, it is surprising that the friend and companion of Garrick should have so little to say that has not been already told, should have so little to praise that has not been the topic of every hackneyed gazetteer. We knew Garrick only in his decline; yet we could often add to the comments on his acting, to the woeful contrast which has succeeded.—But of this enough.

The first volume relates to the life of this celebrated man, previous to his excursion to the continent. Of his early age we have no new narrative, not a single additional anecdote. Of his acting in Richard III. there is a short and discriminate account, highly creditable to both the author and actor. The following pathetic description relating to his acting the mad scenes in Lear has been published with variations. The affecting simplicity of the narrative, and the truth of the colouring, render it a passage worth preserving.

'It was in Lear's madness that Garrick's genius was remarkably distinguished. He had no sudden starts, no violent gesticulation; his movements were slow and feeble; misery was depicted in his countenance; he moved his head in the most deliberate manner; his eyes were fixed, or, if they turned to any one near him, he made a pause, and fixed his look on the person after much delay; his features at the same time telling what he was going to say, before he uttered a word. During the whole time he presented a sight of woe and misery, and a total alienation of mind from every idea but that of his unkind daughters. He was used to tell how he acquired the hints that guided him, when he began to study this great and difficult part: He was acquainted with a worthy man, who lived in Leman-street, Goodman's Fields; this friend had an only daughter, about two years old; he stood at his dining-room window, fondling the child, and dangling it in his arms, when it was his misfortune to drop the infant into a flagged area, and killed it on the spot. He remained at his window screaming in agonies of grief. The neighbours flocked to the house, took up the child, and delivered it dead to the unhappy father, who wept bitterly, and filled the street with lamentations. He lost his senses, and from that moment never recovered his understanding. As he had a sufficient fortune, his friends chose to let him remain in his house, under two keepers appointed by Dr. Monro. Garrick frequently went to see his distracted friend, who passed the remainder of his life in going to the window, and there playing in fancy with his child. After some dalliance, he dropped it, and, bursting into a flood of tears, filled the house with shrieks of grief and bitter anguish. He then sat down in a pensive mood, his eyes fixed on one object, at times looking slowly round him, as if to implore compassion. Garrick was often present at this scene of misery, and was ever after used to say, that it

gave him the first idea of king Lear's madness. This writer has often seen him rise in company to give a representation of this unfortunate father. He leaned on the back of a chair, seeming with parental fondness to play with a child, and, after expressing the most heart-felt delight, he suddenly dropped the infant, and instantly broke out in a most violent agony of grief, so tender, so affecting, and pathetic, that every eye in company was moistened with a gush of tears. There it was, said Garrick, that I learned to imitate madness; I copied nature, and to that owed my success in king Lear.' Vol. i. p. 27.

The criticisms on Hamlet and Macbeth, with the remarks on Garrick's representation of these characters, pleased us; but they offer little novelty. In the latter there is a passage not generally noticed by critics, who usually suppose that Macbeth is urged by the predictions of the witches and his wife's ambition to murder Duncan. It is evident that the usurpation and the murder were not then new in the mind of the victorious general. Lady Macbeth alludes to this previous plan when urging her husband not to lose so excellent an opportunity as the visit of Duncan offered.

> ' ——————— Nor time nor place
> Did *then adhere*, and yet you would make both:
> They have made themselves, and that their fitness now
> Doth unmake you.'

It is evident that no time is allotted for this '*suggestion*' between the witches' first prediction and the visit of Duncan; for the latter giving the earliest notice of the rencontre of the weird sisters, and their hailing him as king, precedes only, by a very short interval, the conversation alluded to. These 'præternatural solicitings,' therefore, only fanned the spark, but did not strike it. We suspect, too, that Shakspeare intended to represent Hamlet as really agitated into an inconsistent wildness. His behaviour to Ophelia is not necessary to support the deception. He needed not have treated her with wanton insult; nor does this conduct suit the character of the hero as drawn by Ophelia herself.

> ' The courtier's, soldier's, scholar's eye, tongue, sword,
> The expectancy and rose of the fair state,
> The glass of fashion, and the mould of form,
> Th' observed of all observers.'——

The 'wild and whirling words' of Hamlet begin at the moment of the ghost's departure, and his plan appears to be adopted only in the latter part of the scene at the end of the first act. There is an irresolute inconsistency in the first part of his conduct to his intimate friends; for, after administering the most solemn soldier's oath, and the commencement of the tale,

> ' There is ne'er a villain dwelling in all Denmark—,'

He breaks off abruptly with the common trite remark,—

'But he's an arrant knave.'

This subject we have formerly hinted at, and may again return to. It is necessary, however, to recollect that Mr. Garrick is our object.

The quarrel between Garrick and Macklin is explained more satisfactorily than in any former work. From the publications subjoined, there appears more manly honesty in the Hibernian hero than in Garrick; yet the latter had much to plead. Corbin Morris was the author of Macklin's papers; and Guthrie the historian, for many years a writer in this journal, of Garrick's.

The events of Garrick's management, and the dull analysis of dull plays, or the more lively accounts of some brighter meteors, offer nothing very new or interesting: they are tales often told; the dregs of that spirit, whose brilliancy and flavour have been so often admired. The account of Barry's first appearance, and of his performance, is occasionally pleasing, but not particularly new. Our author, with the world at large, seems to have been too favourable to Barry. Yet we have stood by Garrick, and noticed the warmest marks of unconscious, almost involuntary, applause while Barry played Evander.

The introduction of a band of Swiss dancers, and the attempt to perform, with their assistance, what was called a Chinese Festival, gives occasion to an anecdote which we do not recollect to have seen: it is truly characteristic.

'The scribblers, the small wits, and the whole tribe of disappointed authors, declared war against the manager. In newspapers, essays, and paragraphs, they railed at an undertaking, calculated, as they said, to maintain a gang of Frenchmen. The spirit of the inferior class was roused, and spread like wildfire through London and Westminster. Garrick was alarmed, but still thought he could avert the impending storm. The king had never seen him act; this he stated to the duke of Grafton, then lord chamberlain, and made it his request to have the honour of appearing before his majesty, when, according to custom, on the day of opening the session of parliament, he honoured the playhouse with his presence. The favour was granted, and Richard III. was announced by command. This contrivance Garrick flattered himself would preserve peace and good order. His performance of Richard, and the royal presence, he hoped would procure a quiet reception for the Chinese Festival. He found himself mistaken. The play being finished, the dancers entered, and all was noise, tumult, and commotion. His majesty was amazed at the uproar; but, being told that it was because people hated the French, he smiled, and withdrew from a scene of confusion. The affray continued without intermission above an hour. In the mean time Mr. Fitzherbert, father of lord St. Helen, and possessed of wit, humour, and politeness, almost beyond any gentleman of that day, went into the green room, where the present writer happened to be. He had been, in consequence of an office which he held, one of the attendants in the king's box. Garrick was impatient to know what his majesty thought of Richard. "I can

say nothing on that head," replied Mr. Fitzherbert; but when an actor told Richard, "The mayor of London comes to greet you," the king rouzed himself; and when Taswell entered buffooning the character, the king exclaimed, "Duke of Grafton, I like that lord mayor;" and when the scene was over, he said again, "Duke of Grafton, that is good lord mayor." Well! but the warlike bustle, the drums and trumpets, and the shouts of soldiers, must have awakened a great military genius. "I can say nothing of that," replied Mr. Fitzherbert; but when Richard was in Bosworth-field, roaring for a horse, his majesty said, "Duke of Grafton, will that lord mayor not come again?" Vol. i. p. 278.

Once more:

'The following anecdote may, perhaps, amuse the reader. On the morning after the farce was acted, Mr. Garrick paid the author a visit, and brought with him the celebrated Dr. Munsey, whom this writer had never seen. Garrick entered the dining room, and turning suddenly round, ran to the door, and called out, "Dr. Munsey, where are you going?"—"Up stairs to see the author," said Munsey. —"Pho! pho! come down, the author is here." Dr. Munsey came, and, as he entered the room, said, in his free way, "You scoundrel! I was going up to the garret: who could think of finding an author on the first floor?" After this introduction, the doctor sat down, and was highly diverting for near an hour. He rose on a sudden, and, "Well! Garrick," said he, "I have had enough of this, and now I'll go and see the tall woman at Charing-cross." From that time the present writer was intimate with Dr. Munsey, and found him on all occasions a most pleasant companion.' Vol. i. p. 282.

Of his farces Mr. Murphy speaks with modesty, and of his tragedies with a manly consciousness of their merit. The account of the biographer's dispute with Garrick respecting the Orphan of China is too extensive for quotation at this time; yet it deserves attention, as it appears to have left a rankling sore, which still occasionally irritates. The vestiges of some former flame glimmer not unfrequently in the pages before us. That Garrick was the author of High Life below Stairs has been publicly contradicted, since the publication of Mr. Murphy's work.

Garrick, agitated by the disturbances at the theatre, occasioned by his refusal to take half price during the run of a new play, seems to have resolved on a tour to the continent. The friend of Garrick might be expected to have gleaned some new anecdote, some unknown circumstance, attending the journey; but the history of the stage is continued, and the few circumstances already recorded of Garrick's reception, and the extraordinary applause excited by his pantomimic efforts, are repeated. On his return the Clandestine Marriage was produced, the joint production of himself and Mr. Colman. It is well known, that, in acting lord Ogleby, Mr. King deviated from Garrick's idea, and acted in a manner all his own; but this manner was, it is

said, caught from a provincial printer, whom King had known in his former theatrical excursions. Jefferson drew from the same source; and, with the original before him, perhaps even excelled King himself.

We pass over a crowd of spectres, which have strutted their little hour on the stage, and have then been heard no more; with sometimes a more substantial figure, that for a longer time fixes our regards. The alterations of Hamlet by Garrick are, unfortunately, of the former kind. Mr. Murphy thinks that, as Garrick 'never published his alterations, he saw his error;' the error of entering the magic circle, in which no one dares walk but the inspired author himself. We hasten on to the conclusion of Garrick's theatrical life, and to the last scene which every one must act.—From the latter part of his biography we shall select a short passage.

'In that agreeable retreat he began to breathe a freer air, and to enjoy a pleasing relief from toil and labour. He had there the secret pleasure of reflecting on a life well spent. He had run his race, and could sit at the goal, crowned with laurels. He could look back with pleasure, and say with Cicero, that a review of his former conduct afforded the most delightful scene for contemplation: *Vitæ bene actæ jucundissima est recordatio.* To his own conscious pleasure was added the esteem of the best men in the kingdom. He received the visits of the nobility, of the ablest scholars, and the men of genius in every branch of literature. He lived in an elegant style, and to the luxuries of the table added his wit and the polished manner of one who had enjoyed the best company. His behaviour was modest and unassuming; he gave himself no superior airs; and the pride, which a large fortune often inspires, was foreign to his heart. To those who visited him on account of his talents, he did not, like Congreve to Voltaire, say, that he desired to be visited merely as a country gentleman. On the contrary, Shakespeare and dramatic poetry were his favourite topics. To see the theatre in a flourishing state was still the wish of his heart. He came to his house in the Adelphi soon after the playhouse season began, and was often seen in the boxes. His pen was at the service of his friends. He furnished a beautiful epilogue for this writer's comedy of Know your own Mind, which was acted at Covent-Garden in February, 1777. The School for Scandal was presented at Druly-lane in the beginning of May following, and there again we find that Garrick was still at work. His muse furnished the prologue to that excellent comedy. Mr. Sheridan wished to have the opinion of so able a judge. Garrick read the play with close attention, and spoke of it in all companies with the highest approbation. He attended the rehearsals, and was never known, on any former occasion, to be more anxious for a favourite piece. He was proud of the new manager, and, in a triumphant manner, boasted of the genius to whom he had consigned the conduct of the theatre. Amidst the praise which he bestowed on Mr. Sheridan's performance, a gentleman said to him, "This is but a single play, and, at the long-run, will be but a slender help to support a theatre. To you, Mr. Garrick, I must

say, the Atlas, that propped the stage, has left his station."—"Has he," said Garrick: "If that be the case, he has found another Hercules to succeed to the office." Vol. ii. p. 142.

Garrick's character, as an author, a manager, an actor, and a private member of society, follows. From this part we can make no extract; for we see little that merits our particular notice. We perceive, however, that, in characterising the state of the drama, during the management of Rich, Mr. Murphy fairly exposes absurdities of modern managers. If, in his account of Garrick's acting—if, when he remarks, 'before he uttered a word, the varying passions began to work, and wrought such rapid changes in his features,' &c.—he had adverted to the modern speakers of soliloquies, and those of public approbation too, whose haste of repetition allows neither time for the eye to judge or the understanding to comprehend the words, he might have done good service to those who 'imitate humanity so abominably.'

The Appendix consists of letters, prologues, epilogues, and odes; with Macklin's attack and Garrick's defence during their contest. On these we cannot enlarge; but must leave our old acquaintance with regret. We may not again meet him on such pleasing ground: yet we are sorry to reflect that, on scenes so promising, he has not scattered the flowers around him which he might have culled, nor raised a monument of genuine criticism and more substantial instruction to his own 'fair fame.'

ART. XI.—*Elementary Treatises on the Fundamental Principles of Practical Mathematics, for the Use of Students. By Samuel Lord Bishop of Rochester.* 8*vo.* 10*s.* 6*d.* Robson. 1801.

TO compose an elementary treatise is, from the extreme difficulty of the undertaking, an attempt not often made by persons of high rank and splendid abilities: it is useful, however, both to themselves and the public. To the former, by bringing back to their recollection and examination first principles, too frequently embraced for ages without sufficient proof: to the latter, by making the ascent to science less rugged, and by placing before the learner, in the best points of view, the results of his predecessors in science. In what degree the right reverend author of the work before us has obtained either of these ends will appear to our readers, on a slight examination of his treatises; but the merit due to him for laborious application cannot be estimated without an attentive perusal of them.

The work is presented to the public under great disadvantages. It is to be considered as the third and last of three volumes on elementary geometry; and, what will appear very singular, the two first volumes are to be published in Latin.—

The reason for adopting a foreign language for the greater part of the work we cannot conceive; and the apology offered by the writer respecting the remaining part of it, that the English tracts were drawn up for the use of a private person, by no means diminishes the deformity which the public must ever behold in so motley and patch-work a compilation.

The first volume is to contain the first twelve books of Euclid. In the second will be given Euclid's data, Theodosius on the sphere, the first book, and part of the second and third; Archimedes on the dimension of the circle; and Keil on the nature and use of logarithms. As these two volumes are to be published in Latin, the English mathematician will scarcely be at the trouble of studying the third volume at any time; for, as references are frequently made to the two former, his career would be soon terminated, and many otherwise excellent demonstrations in this work would become unintelligible: and till the two first volumes are published, indeed, a similar objection may be urged by every description of readers.

The writer professes, in the preface, to have composed the work before us with a view to 'make the practical parts of the science plain enough for the learner, and adapted, at the same time, to the taste of the scholar.' With this view he begins with the arithmetic of fractions, in a hundred and twelve large octavo pages; thence he proceeds to trigonometry, plane and spherical, to the 228th page. The projections of the sphere follow, and occupy the volume as far as the 378th page; and the work is concluded by a very ingenious mode of examining the figure of the earth, as deducible from observation.

A Cambridge mathematician will wonder how it is possible to occupy one hundred and twelve pages with the mere subject of the arithmetic of fractions—and the more so, when he is told that a very small part of these pages is given up to instances, the rest being devoted to plain and elegant reasoning. The first page is an exceeding good specimen of the writer's talents in adapting this reasoning to the capacity of a beginner. The common definition of a fraction, namely, that it is a broken number, or a number less than unity, is declared, in the first sentence, to be 'absurd and unintelligible;' for number is composed of units, and unity is indivisible;—consequently, below an unit is no number.

'But considering number not in the abstract, but as existing in the things numbered, the unit of these embodied numbers exists in the individuals of which the multitude is composed; that is, in each individual, separately taken. Each individual is no otherwise one, or no otherwise partakes of unity, than as it is a whole; and as a whole it must be composed of parts; for to be composed of parts is essential to a whole—for a whole is that from which no part is absent.'

We very much suspect, that, however, this may suit the taste of Oxford students, for whom the work is chiefly designed, the Cambridge mathematician will feel, by the time he has advanced thus far, a strange inclination for yawning. The subject must be confessed, nevertheless, to be difficult; and we cannot take too much pains in levelling the ground, at first, for a beginner. We proceed then:—

'A whole, therefore, as a whole, is one; but, as composed of parts, it is many. The unit, therefore, of *embodied numbers* is many in one; and, by dividing the whole into its parts, this concrete one is resolved into its many; and these many parts, among themselves, and with relation to the whole, are no less the subject of numeration than the many wholes, making multitudes. These parts, considered in their relation to the whole, are called fractions; the whole being usually called an integer.'

The taste of the scholar must, doubtless, be gratified by this prompt and elegant mode of describing a fraction; but it will seldom, we apprehend, be copied into the vulgar books of arithmetic: for such compositions, indeed, it is not intended. It must remain *caviare* to the populace, who will proceed in their dull routine, and learn all the operations on fractions, before the scholar has mastered this first page of perspicuous ratiocination, and the six previous theorems, which are to be duly digested prior to his attaining the ordinary section of education, addition, subtraction, &c.

A vulgar scholar may be taught fractions with great ease, in a short time, by plain, simple, and obvious rules: but how can he understand the science of fractions without understanding the doctrine of proportion? Hence, by way of preparation for the due comprehension of the 112 first pages of this work, the scholar will necessarily arm himself with the complete knowledge of the fifth book of Euclid. He may then confidently attack the definitions in the third page, and understand the corollary to the third definition, 'that a fraction, whose numerator is unit, is to its integer as unit, or one, to the denominator.'—But, without this preparation, the remainder of this part is a dead letter to him. Notwithstanding the presumed elegance of the proofs of the doctrine of fractions from that of proportions, we are not, we confess, by any means satisfied on the propriety of introducing a doctrine, to the generality of scholars, very obscure, on a subject which, without it, is very simple and clear; and even if the doctrine of proportion may be made the basis of investigation on the nature of fractions, we could have wished its connexion with the subject to have been more happily explained, and the various processes laid down in a clearer and simpler manner. But if we see little to admire or approve in the first ninety-two pages, the examples which follow, ὡς ἐν

παρεγγω, of the method of assigning the lengths of the sides of the equilateral polygons in the fourth book of Euclid, afford a very judicious practice to the scholar.

On the subject of plane trigonometry we meet with little to distinguish the present attempt from the ordinary treatises that have preceded it. The method of finding the sine of an arc in one minute, taken from the trigonometry of Nitiken and Souvoroff, is very properly introduced; but we could have wished that a due comparison had been instituted between the merits of the Russian and the usual mode, from the bisection of an arc, and that it had been well pointed out to the learner where either of these, or the Newtonian series, may be applied with success. We agree with the writer in his assertion, that

'—it is a very great error to suppose that the inventions of sir Isaac Newton, in this particular business, supersede the methods above mentioned. Such an opinion is founded upon a very hasty consideration of the subject in theory, without any practical experience.'

This observation we recommend to the notice of the Cambridge mathematicians, who are too apt to be satisfied with a general theorem, without any regard to its utility in practice; and by neglecting the practical examination of their opinions, much useless knowledge is propagated from year to year, and false notions of many parts of science are entertained. This intimation, if the writer will not be offended, we would recommend to his farther notice; for he will then see that the solution of cubical equations, by a table of sines and cosines, is in practice very troublesome and unsatisfactory. Let it be tried on an equation taken at random: as for example; the equation $x^3 - 88x = 220$, and the number of processes and figures be examined in the two solutions, the trigonometrical, and that by approximation, to obtain the same number of figures in the root.

Spherical trigonometry is very much neglected by the students of mathematics, partly from its inferior utility to plane trigonometry, and partly from the difficulty of the subject. In the latter respect the moderns have a manifest advantage over the ancients; and the two short rules of Napier considerably assist the memory in the solution of right-angled spherical triangles. The modes of solution are proved in the bishop's work, but the rules themselves are omitted; a circumstance which, in our estimation, depreciates this part of the volume very largely. To one also who is so evidently studious, and properly so, of pursuing the ancient process of reasoning, the structure of a definition and its corollaries cannot be of little importance; yet we here find a corollary to a definition, in which a circumstance is taken for granted that requires very accurate examination.—A

spherical angle is defined to be 'an angle on the surface of a sphere, contained between the arcs of two great circles intersecting each other.' We well know what an angle is when right lines only are concerned; but it is not so easy to form an idea in the mind of the inclination of the arcs of circles intersecting each other on a sphere. In a corollary to the definition it is asserted, and attempted to be proved, that 'every spherical angle is equal to the inclination of the planes of the great circles between the arcs of which it is contained, or to the supplement of that inclination.' To prove this, tangents are drawn to the arcs of the spherical angle at the point of their intersection, and the following assertion is then advanced:—'It is manifest that the spherical angle is equal to the angle contained by the tangents.' This is by no means manifest to us, or to any one, we will venture to say, who knows nothing of angles, rectilinear or curvilinear, but by the preceding definitions. However, if we allowed this, the demonstration would still halt; for tangents innumerable may be drawn to the spherical arcs at the point of their intersection—while only two will serve the purpose of this demonstration; namely, those which lie in the planes of the great circles, of which the spherical arcs are segments: yet this is not affirmed in the demonstration; consequently it is not proved that a spherical angle is equal to the inclination of the planes of the great circles, between the arcs of which it is contained. But can it be proved by the author's mode of reasoning? If it can, instead of saying it is manifest, we must lay down a new definition of a spherical angle; to wit, that a spherical angle is the same as the angle contained by two tangents to the spherical arcs at the point of their intersection; and these two tangents must be drawn in the planes of the great circles to which they are tangents. Having premised such a definition, which cannot, however, be allowed, we may proceed with safety in our author's demonstration, and his conclusion is justified: instead, therefore, of a corollary to a definition, we ought perhaps, in strict propriety, to insert the inverse of this corollary, as an important proposition in spherics; namely, *the inclination of the planes of two great circles, whose arcs compose a spherical angle, is equal to the angle contained by the tangents to those arcs, drawn in the planes of the great circles, at the point of the intersection of the arcs.*

The third part of this work, the doctrine of projections, merits the greatest share of our approbation; but here, unfortunately, there are still so many references to the unpublished volumes, that the perusal of it should have been delayed till these had made their appearance. This delay, with most students, will not be of importance; for, from the difficulty of the subject, very few pay it the attention it deserves. In this division the author's labour shows itself to the greatest advantage:—he

has collected the most important propositions on projections, and arranged them in a truly scientific manner. As he had in view, however, the practical parts of science, we could have wished this portion of the volume had been accompanied by some instances, to render the doctrine familiar to the learner.

The last part, on the figure of the earth, seems to have very slender pretensions to a place in an elementary work, and may exercise the talents of very deep proficients in science. The question is

'—to determine the particular figure of the earth, upon the supposition that it is that of a spheroid, generated by the revolution of a semi-ellipsis about its minor axis.'

This is to be determined from the various observations made on different parts of the earth to discover a degree of latitude; and the general principle of solution is, that similar arcs of an ellipsis, taken so small as not to differ sensibly from circular arcs, are as the radii of curvature at the middle points: hence we find, by some difficult formulæ, the species of ellipsis, to which the curve on the earth's surface, in the plane of a meridian on which the degrees of latitude were measured, may be referred, and the ellipticity of the spheroid, discovered. The measures here considered are those taken in Lapland by Maupertuis; in France by Cassini and De la Caille; at Vienna by Liesganig; at Turin by Beccaria; in Italy by Boscovich; in Maryland by Mason; at the Cape of Good Hope by De la Caille; in South America by Bouger, De la Condamine, and Ulloa. These give such very different results, that the mean of all of them can as little be depended upon as the result from any of these measures, compared separately;—and the famous question, on the figure of the earth, still remains a desideratum in geography. We very much suspect that the discovery of it is not to be obtained by any admeasurement of lines taken on different meridians; and the number and the nicety of the observations on the shadow of the earth in a lunar eclipse, requisite to give a tolerable conjecture as to the locus of the curve which bounds a plane passing through the earth's centre, clouds this attempt with almost insuperable difficulties. But time, application, and labour, will probably render this inquiry easy to some of our remote descendants.

The investigation of the problem before us, with the masterly manner in which the doctrine of projections is treated, would, independently of the proofs given in other works of great mathematical talents, have raised our author high in the estimation of all who cultivate mathematical science;—but, with great depth of knowledge himself, he does not seem to have studied sufficiently the art of rendering it plain and familiar to others. As an elementary treatise, we can by no means recommend the

present volume: the plainness and elegance promised in the preface are qualities we have seldom met with as we proceeded. The students at Oxford will require other aids, or they can never expect to enter into competition, in these sciences, with their brethren at Cambridge; and the latter will scarcely any of them indulge in the perusal of this work till they have taken their bachelor's degree. To the superior classes at Cambridge, and to teachers in other places, it may be properly recommended: such, indeed, may derive very considerable advantages from it; but, great as the advantage may be, it cannot be adequate to the labour bestowed on it by the indefatigable author, whose merit is far above our encomiums.

ART. XII.—*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. For the Year* 1800. *Part II.* 13*s. and Part III.* 17*s. 4to. sewed.* Elmsly.

THE attention we have uniformly paid to the labours of the Royal Society will prevent any suspicion of disrespect from our delay of the present article. Indeed, in a literary journal, preference and procrastination are generally to be attributed to reasons very remote from those of respect and contempt, and depend on causes very different from the real merit or insignificance of a work. The society's annual volume is, for the last year, divided into three parts, of which we have already examined the first only *, and shall now proceed to the remainder.

'XII. On double Images caused by Atmospherical Refraction. By William Hyde Wollaston, M. D. F. R. S.'

Dr. Wollaston's investigation of the causes of the apparent elevation, depression, or inversion of objects, in consequence of a strong atmospherical refraction, merits great commendation: it is clear, scientific, and satisfactory. Refraction of objects proceeds from gradual increase or decrease of the density of the air through which they are beheld; and this principle is investigated mathematically, as well as confirmed by experiment, in examining their appearance through fluids of a known and varying density. It appears that air, heated to a moderate warmth, occasions to objects a double or inverted aspect; while refraction, by a higher degree of heat, gives an additional image not inverted. Dr. Wollaston has explained also 'in what state of evaporation the increase of the air's density brings distant objects into view by unusual elevation, and under what circumstances evaporation may also produce an inverted image less elevated. These explanations depend, in a great degree, on experiments and diagrams, the assistance of which we cannot employ from the want of plates.

'XIII. Investigation of the Powers of the Prismatic Colours

* See Vol. XXX. New Arr. p. 121.

to heat and illuminate Objects; with Remarks, that prove the different Refrangibility of radiant Heat. To which is added, an Inquiry into the Method of viewing the Sun advantageously, with Telescopes of large Apertures and high magnifying Powers. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.'

This is the first of a series of important papers dispersed through the second and third parts, which we shall consider together. The subject of the investigation was apparently suggested by Mr. Herschel's viewing the sun through differently coloured glasses, and finding, from some, a sensation of heat with but little light, and, from others, much light without heat. It immediately occurred that the prismatic colour must have the power of heating in different degrees; and it must equally follow, that, in a beam of light, many of the rays had little influence in the vitrification or combustion produced by the collection of the whole in a focus. In this analysis we need not be minute in the proportions: it is sufficient to observe, that the red rays were most calorific, the succeeding ones less, and the violet very slightly so. The proportion of heat between the extremes, or from red to violet, being about $3\frac{1}{4}$ to 1.

The power of the prismatic colours, in illuminating objects, was next examined. In this respect the red light was not the most effectual. The maximum was about the middle of the scale, in a light of the brightest yellow, or the palest green. In all colours the vision was equally distinct; but, in the rays of more powerful illumination, smaller points could be seen than in those of a weaker lustre.

'I might now proceed to my next subject; but it may be pardonable if I digress for a moment, and remark, that the foregoing researches ought to lead us on to others. May not the chemical properties of the prismatic colours be as different as those which relate to light and heat? Adequate methods for an investigation of them may easily be found; and we cannot too minutely enter into an analysis of light, which is the most subtle of all the active principles that are concerned in the mechanism of the operations of nature. A better acquaintance with it may enable us to account for various facts that fall under our daily observation, but which have hitherto remained unexplained. If the power of heating, as we now see, be chiefly lodged in the red-making rays, it accounts for the comfortable warmth that is thrown out from a fire, when it is in the state of a red glow; and for the heat which is given by charcoal, coke, and balls of small-coal mixed up with clay, used in hot-houses; all which, it is well known, throw out red light. It also explains the reason why the yellow, green, blue, and purple flames of burning spirits mixed with salt, occasion so little heat that a hand is not materially injured, when passed through their coruscations. If the chemical properties of colours also, when ascertained, should be such that an acid principle, for instance, which has been ascribed to light in general, on account of its changing the complexion of various substances exposed to it, may reside only in one of the colours, while others may

prove to be differently invested, it will follow, that bodies may be variously affected by light, according as they imbibe and retain, or transmit and reflect, the different colours of which it is composed.' P. 270.

This idea is ingenious, but not wholly new. We recollect (we believe in the Exeter Essays) some observations of this kind, where, from different facts, the chemical changes were found to be most powerful from the blue rays: nor is this wholly inconsistent with our author's experiment; since, as the blue rays are least potent in illumination, more of their light is probably absorbed. If our memory deceive us not, the author of that paper endeavoured to show, that, in the coloured spectrum, the light was merely expanded and attenuated, and not, to adopt the language of chemists, decomposed.

The application of the author's experiments to telescopic purposes is highly ingenious. To intercept the greatest quantity of light, consistent with a distinct vision of the sun's body, and to avoid the heat, which is painful, and often cracks the glasses, is an object of no little importance. Dr. Herschel's most successful plans we shall add in his own words.

'No. 25. I placed a very dark green glass behind the second eye-glass, that it might be sheltered by both glasses, which in my double eye-piece are close together, and of an equal focal length. Here, as the rays are not much concentrated, the coloured glass receives them on a large surface, and stops light and heat, in the proportion of the squares of its diameter now used, to that on which the rays would have fallen, had it been placed in the focus of pencils. And, for the same reason, I now also placed a dark green smoked glass close upon the former, with the smoked side towards the eye, that the smoke might likewise be protected against heat, by a passage of the rays through two surfaces of coloured glass.

'This position had moreover the advantage of leaving the telescope, with its mirrors and glasses, completely to perform its operation, before the application of the darkening apparatus; and thus to prevent the injury which must be occasioned, by the interposition of the heterogeneous colouring matter of the glasses and of the smoke.

'No. 26. I placed a deep blue glass with a bluish green smoked one upon it, as in No. 25, and found the sun of a whiter colour than with the former composition. There was no disagreeable sensation of heat; though a little warmth might be felt.' P. 281.

'XIV. Experiments on the Refrangibility of the invisible Rays of the Sun. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.'

It has been hitherto supposed that the whole sun beam was broken into colours by the prism; but, from these experiments, there appears to be a portion which heats without illuminating: in other words, that the sun is not essential to light alone. This seems to be proved by the thermometer rising, when at the distance of about $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch from the red part of the spectrum,

higher than in the red rays; so that, in reality, the rays which have little, if any, refraction, are the hottest.—This still leads to an idea that the colours are owing only to the attenuation of light; for the strongest, the least attenuated light, produces the greatest heat. Why it loses, when slightly refracted, the power of illumination we know not, and perhaps the experiments should still be repeated with some variations. If found correct in every circumstance, we may safely adopt Dr. Herschel's idea, that 'radiant heat consists of particles of light of a certain range of momenta, and which range may extend a little farther on each side of refrangibility than that of light.'—'In this case, radiant heat will at least partly, if not chiefly, consist, if I may be permitted the expression, of invisible light, that is to say, of rays coming from the sun that have such a momentum as to be unfit for vision.'—There is, however, one other view of the subject at which it may be of importance to glance. If, with the author before noticed, we consider the heat as elicited from the body, in consequence of its union with light, rather than produced by the direct communication of heat from the sun, we can easily see that the maximum of heat cannot exist in the red rays, for colour must arise from the reflection of some portion of light, while the rest is absorbed. Where the *whole* light is absorbed, there the heat will necessarily be greatest. It is proper, however, to add our author's conclusion.

'To conclude, if we call light, those rays which illuminate objects, and radiant heat, those which heat bodies, it may be inquired, whether light be essentially different from radiant heat? In answer to which I would suggest, that we are not allowed, by the rules of philosophising, to admit two different causes to explain certain effects, if they may be accounted for by one. A beam of radiant heat, emanating from the sun, consists of rays that are differently refrangible. The range of their extent, when dispersed by a prism, begins at violet-coloured light, where they are most refracted, and have the least efficacy. We have traced these calorific rays throughout the whole extent of the prismatic spectrum; and found their power increasing, while their refrangibility was lessened, as far as to the confines of red-coloured light. But their diminishing refrangibility, and increasing power, did not stop here; for we have pursued them a considerable way beyond the prismatic spectrum, into an invisible state, still exerting their increasing energy, with a decrease of refrangibility up to the maximum of their power; and have also traced them to that state where, though still less refracted, their energy, on account, we may suppose, of their now failing density, decreased pretty fast; after which, the invisible thermometrical spectrum, if I may so call it, soon vanished.' P. 291.

'XV. Experiments on the Solar and on *the Terrestrial Rays that occasion Heat*; with a comparative View of the Laws to which Light and Heat, or rather the Rays which occasion them, are

subject, in order to determine whether they are the same, or different. By William Herschel, LL.D. F.R.S.'

In these two papers Dr. Herschel enters, at great length, into the subject of heat and light. He shows that all heat and light, either solar or terrestrial, is subject to reflection and refraction; that the rays are of different refrangibility, liable to be stopped in different proportions, when transmitted through diaphanous bodies, and to be scattered on rough surfaces. Heat possesses similar powers; but how far light heats, or heat illuminates, remains to be examined. The former properties are shown to be true, respecting the reflection of the heat of the sun, of a candle, that which accompanies the solar prismatic colours, of a red hot poker, of a coal fire, either by a plain mirror or a prism, of the invisible solar heat, viz. that uncoloured heat on this side of the prismatic red rays, of invisible culinary heat, and of heat from iron no longer red. In all these instances, rays capable of heating are influenced by refraction. Some of these are also capable of illuminating; but their heating power is only noticed at present. It is certainly true that rays not visible can produce heat; but, while our organs continue imperfect, it is as much impossible to say that such may not be visible, as to say, for this reason, that heat is not necessarily luminous.

Dr. Herschel next considers the refraction of heat-making rays, and finds the rays from each different source already mentioned capable of refraction, indeed of numerous crossings by multiplied refractions, without any apparent diminution of their heating power. Nor were the invisible rays visible by condensation. It remains, however, to be proved whether they might not be visible by farther attenuation if passed through a medium more powerfully refracting than glass; for such, according to the foregoing system, is requisite to render them visible.

This subject is continued in the first paper of the third part. In this it is remarked, that, while the rays of heat, in the particulars mentioned, resemble those of light, there are yet some striking differences between them. The prism disperses the heating rays very differently from the illuminating ones, and the spectra are of different shapes, though the sines of refraction of the two former are in a constant ratio to the sines of incidence, and the dispersion of heating rays is corrected by the varied refrangibility of compound glasses like the luminous. In burning-glasses the focus of heat is said to be not the same as the focus of light; but the experiment is so far from accurate, and so obscurely related, that, though the position may be true, and probably is so, we cannot consider it as proved.

The fifth article relates to the transmission of heat-making rays; and the inquiry is conducted by numerous and well-managed experiments. The sixth article relates to the scattering of heat from rough surfaces, which is also examined by experi-

ment. Were there room for extensive inquiry, we should object to the conclusions from some of these, and the conduct of some others; but this is less necessary in a general view, the only one we can take of the subject, as the principle is well established.

The seventh article is on the question, Whether light and heat be occasioned by the same or by different rays? and contains the result of the various experiments. We have said, that, in light reflected by a prism, the spectrum of heat is different from that of light: it is thrown on this side of the red rays, increases to a maximum, and gradually vanishes with the most refrangible rays; the heat disappearing with the colour. Light appears, at first sight, different from heat; for the greatest illumination is not in the greatest heat: on the contrary, the greatest heat is in the part of the spectrum without colour. That the refrangibility of heat is not the same as that of light we do not at present admit, as the position depends on the disputed experiment. From the experiments of transmitted heat and light, there seems a great difference in the proportions which pass through substances transparent in different degrees. The obstruction of one sort of rays will not occasion obstruction of the others. We admit that light and heat are essentially different, but think it by no means proved from these experiments; for the ingredients of the glass may sometimes have an affinity to the invisible rays, as well as a portion of the red rays, in which much of the heat consists. Nor is our author's reply to an objection resembling this at all applicable to the present. The following remarks, however, must be allowed to have considerable force.

'It will not be necessary to lay much stress on this single experiment; our second table affords us sufficient ground on which to rest more forcible arguments. A dark-red glass, for instance, was found to stop 606 rays of heat, and 999,8 of light. This, even at the very first view, seems to amount to a total separation of the two principles; but let us discuss the phænomenon with precision.

'As only one ray in 5000 can make its way through this glass, it is evident, that if the rays of light be also those of heat, there can hardly come any heat through it but what must be occasioned by rays that are invisible. It will therefore become a question to be examined, how many of this sort we can admit, if we proceed on a supposition that heat consists of light, as far as that will go. Now this, we find, has already been ascertained, in a great measure, by our 13th, 17th, and 18th experiments. In the 13th, one hundred and twenty degrees of heat were given to a thermometer, in one minute, by the rays which accompany the coloured part of the spectrum. In the 17th experiment, on the contrary, we find only 45 degrees of heat communicated to the same thermometer, in the same time, by the invisible rays of the same spectrum. If we would be more scrupulous, the 18th experiment limits the heat from rays totally invisible even to 21 degrees; but, in order to make every possible allowance, let the proportion be the most favourable one of 120 to 45, which, reduced

to mean rays of heat, will give 727 of them visible, and 273 invisible, to make up our thousand.

'To return to the experiment: if the total number of rays of heat ascribed to light should accordingly be rated at 727, it is evident, from the stoppage of light of this glass, that 726 rays of heat at least must also be intercepted; and, in consequence of the 153d experiment, which shows that our glass opposes no obstruction to any of the invisible rays, we shall require no more. But, by our present experiment, this glass stops only 606 rays of heat; so that 120 of them will remain unaccounted for. Now, the moment we give up the hypothesis that heat is occasioned by the rays of light, the difficulty becomes fully resolved by our 100th experiment, which shews that full three-tenths of the rays that have the refrangibility of the red are actually transmitted.' P. 514.

More direct proofs of the difference between light and heat may be drawn from the prismatic experiments. From these, with some experiments alluded to, but not contained in the present paper, it appears, that, in the case of red glass, rays of light are transmitted, while those of heat are resisted; so that they have only, in common, an equal degree of refrangibility, which, by the power of the glass, throws them on nearly the same spot. It appears, too, from all the experiments, that the obstruction of the solar heat is greater in the first period of the observation than in the future one, while the effects of light are uniform and instantaneous. The scratches made with emery prevent the transmission of three times more heat than light.

The same proofs may be drawn from the effects of transmitted or scattered terrestrial heat. The flame of a candle is found, from these experiments, to transmit much invisible heat; for a bluish glass stops 86 degrees of light and 625 of heat; but a red glass, which stops almost the whole light, allows more heat to enter than the bluish glass. The argument, from these experiments, is greatly expanded; but our author does not follow it with the conclusions deduced from the effect of substances in scattering light. Indeed these are, in many respects, anomalous and irregular. We could wish that they were resumed with some variations.—The tables of terrestrial light, transmitted and scattered by various substances, with which the paper closes, are peculiarly valuable: but in this form they are too long for transcription.

On the whole, Dr. Herschel has greatly added to the science of dioptrics by these experiments; yet there is much ground to re-tread before our views can attain a philosophical or scientific precision. One thing particularly remains to be examined, which has been assumed somewhat too gratuitously, viz. the nature of the thermometer. It does not seem in these experiments to have been employed with sufficient precaution. The capacities of the glass of the mercury for re-

ceiving heat, with the light which the glass and the mercury reflect, have not always been taken into the account, nor is the brilliancy or the distinctness of the illumination discriminated with sufficient uniformity. Yet we cannot but highly commend the ingenuity of these experiments and their conclusions; and believe that nothing so satisfactory has been executed in this department of philosophy since the days of sir Isaac Newton.

Of these volumes not much more remains to be noticed; but we are unwilling either to hasten over two or three important papers with disrespectful rapidity, or to extend our article beyond its proper length.—We shall, therefore, resume the 'Transactions' of the last year in another number, when we shall conclude our account.

ART. XIII.—*Grammigraphia; or The Grammar of Drawing: A System of Appearance, which, by easy Rules, communicates its Principles, and shews how it is to be presented by Lines; distinguishing the real Figure in Nature from the Appearance, or shewing the Appearance by the Reality; rendering visual Observation more correct and interesting, and proposing the Pleasure and Universality of the Science. By William Robson. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards.* Wallis.

FROM the above strange and affected title, our readers will probably of themselves form a just idea of this work. Never did we meet with more trivial knowledge conveyed in more pompous language. We shall content ourselves with a few extracts, which will sufficiently speak for themselves. Here is the preface:

'A maid of Corinth drew the outline of the shadow of her lover, who was going a long journey; this gave the first hint for painting.

'A linear representation of the intended figure will always be necessary to painting of every kind; and a linear representation will be, as to form, a full description. Nothing that we see is perfectly described without it.

'A strong inclination to render this charming and necessary study more known and more easy, has prevailed with the author to publish a system of description by lines.

'Some novelties occur both in his terms, and in his method of teaching the science; but successful experience has recommended it to himself, and this he offers as an apology for venturing to propose it to general use.'

Behold a specimen of scientific discussion!

'Since objects cannot be seen as they really are, and the appearance of every thing changes according to its situation (by which, sometimes, length is contracted into a point, and breadth into a line); an acquaintance with the real situation, by what is seen, must be

welcome to every one. The laws of appearance, by which nature is governed, can alone explain this: by such means only can we see with intelligence.

'These should be known early in life; for we lose both usefulness and pleasure by being unable to see objects as they really are, or to describe their figure, shape, and size, if necessary; and this is impossible, when we are unacquainted with the principles, which enable us justly to comprehend the appearance. Even if it be not desired to give a representation by lines, it is equally of consequence to learn these rules; that understanding what is seen, it may be remembered, or related in words, which would be unintelligible without this knowledge.

'There is also very great amusement in comparing these two circumstances together; and observing by what simple rules nature provides such a beautiful variety of appearances.

'From an unfortunate and false idea it has been determined, that a particular genius is necessary to drawing. Forgetting that it is proper for every one to see aright (should they chuse never to draw), the principles of appearance are in general neglected, and the most useful, most common, and most delightful of the powers of sense, is not enjoyed in its full extent.

'Beauty is striking to every one; but there is a difference between the stare of ignorant surprize, and the sweetness of intelligent admiration.

'Sight, that leads even in infancy to an acquaintance with every thing we know, is the first of our powers to be cultivated; from this the names of objects arise, their shape and distinction are understood, and their appearance and quality should be explained.

'Three properties, so useful in common intercourse that nothing can be made or done without them, are as little studied, except on extraordinary occasions, as if of no consequence, viz. size, weight, and space. They should be made familiar; and proportion, that divine balance of nature, would be better understood.

'In these, children might be exercised as an amusement, beginning with guessing the length and breadth of the room, or its height in the same way; and a measuring wand may be always at hand for the purpose of ascertaining the truth.

'For schools, it would be an agreeable employment, by way of directing the judgment, to mark distance on the ground, or height on a wall: and a general balance might be fixed; objects of weight produced; the judgment of all taken, and once a week a prize determined as an encouragement.' P. 16.

Mr. Robson proceeds to propose, that a professor of drawing, or (as he quaintly calls it) description by lines, should be established at our universities.—He should have added an offer of becoming the first professor, especially as he informs us, (p. 26) that, if he should see an angel, he could paint it:—We suppose the angel would choose another artist. In p. 34 there is a second grand title; and perhaps it would have been just as well if the author had filled his book with title-pages. His

figures, engraven on wood, are as extraordinary as his style, of which we shall present other specimens.

'USE PROPORTION.

'*Rule first.*—This subject will be well divided into two masses, viz. the house, and the tree.

'Give the size the house is wished to be in height; this will become the scale.

'The breadth of it is three-fourths its height.

'The stem of the tree is distant once the breadth of the house.

'The same space, on each side, gives the breadth of the picture.

'The house divided into two parts, and the space of one part added above the top, and one at the bottom, gives the height of the picture.

'The space on each side the stem of the tree, divided into two parts, gives the size of the tree.

'USE POSITION.

'*Rule first.*—And continue as in the former example.

'This trifling subject is chosen to render the first trial easy; but either by equal divisions, as in this, or by subdivisions, every possible subject will be presented just as readily.

'By this method, truth will attend every effort. Certainty renders it also the most expeditious mode that can be used; and is equally useful for every sort of drawing.

'It is recommended to mark proportion and position with soft charcoal, cut into sharp pencils; the lines to be drawn upon it with a black lead pencil, or chalk; the charcoal will vanish, after this is done, by a few gentle strokes of a handkerchief.' P. 56.

'*Of the subject for reality.*—It is cut out for the purpose of altering to each situation. It may be untied, taken out, and placed on a book, or something to elevate it conveniently for observation; and by opening the two leaves it will admit of this perpendicular manner in which it should stand; but, if it is preferred, this subject may remain in the book, and may with convenience be held perpendicularly. The moveable parts are then to be disposed according to the instructions given with the five following descriptions of the appearance, and should be held in their proper situation while the observation is made. Care also should be particularly taken that the eye be kept in the right place, this being the very occasion of the appearance to be examined; and the spot with the word "eye" in the position to be observed, will direct to the place where it should be situated in the subject for reality. There will be no occasion to look very near, but as much as possible opposite to the spot.

'APPEARANCE, N° I.

'These pages, which refer to position in the opposite plates, explain the manner of their connexion with the subject for reality. One of the situations, with its varieties, and the rule that governs it, is given in each; a direction to place the subject for reality is added, with a full explanation of the distinction between position and reality in each example.

'Through all these appearances, the step is to be put up horizontally by its supporter, and the roof of the house bent backwards as low as the first spot by the side; the second division of the roof will then come to the second spot by the side, in the subject for reality.

'For this appearance let the gate, in the subject for reality, be closed, and examine in the bars of the gate the situations 1, 2, 3, parallel with the perspective plane, viz.

'1. Parallel with the horizontal and ground line.

'2. Oblique to the horizontal and ground line.

'3. Perpendicular to the ground plane.

'*Rule.*—They remain always respectively parallel with the perspective plane.

'The gate is composed of only these three situations, as figures 1, 2, 3. They are always the same in appearance as in reality, and are the only situations that do not change in appearance.

'They are the three positions on the artificial perspective plane.' P. 101.

Our limits will not permit us further to enlarge on this singular performance, which ought to have been sold at a toy-shop. If the author's design be to excite laughter, it may indeed obtain his object; but, unfortunately, it will be at his own expence.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

FINANCE...POLITICS, &c.

ART. 14.—*A Comparative View of the Public Finances from the Beginning to the Close of the late Administration. By William Morgan, F.R.S.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1801.

THE different appearances of the public finances, at the beginning and the close of the late administration, have removed entirely the film from the eyes of the advocates of the ex-minister, and his powers in calculations of this kind are no longer extolled to the skies with ignorant and unseemly admiration. It is questionable, indeed, whether many of his friends run into the contrary extreme, and be as rash in their censures as they formerly were in their panegyrics. We admit that it is difficult to steer with exactitude between these extremes—to weigh in impartial scales the errors of Mr. Pitt, and to attribute to him no more than what arose from his ignorance of, or inattention to, the subject of finance. A young heir, on coming to

the possession of an estate, already a little embarrassed, and beholding his wealth suddenly increase by the termination of leases granted by his improvident predecessor, is not likely to be very economical; and he will be often found to finish his career in the usual manner of borrowing money at exorbitant interest, of raising his rents beyond the value of his land, and cutting down his timber without mercy. Such, from the perusal of this pamphlet, appears to have been the conduct of the ex-minister. Young and thoughtless, he took the reins of empire, when the nation, after a temporary depression by the American war, was recovering its strength; and the return of peace and prosperity he fondly attributed to his own management. Events have proved the fallacy of his self-applauding judgement;—and the history of his administration, whatever it may have been in other respects, discovers a deplorable ignorance of the true system of finance—of that system by which the greatest sums are levied with the least inconvenience to the subject, and expended to the greatest advantage of the public.

The history of this administration, with respect to financial science, in the treatise before us, may be summed up in few words;—the necessary documents are presented to the public in the clearest manner, by its very able author, who transcribes them from the Reports made to the House of Commons. From these it appears, that, 'during the course of a century, the predecessors of Mr. Pitt, by a system of progressive extravagance, have accumulated a debt of two hundred and thirty-two millions, which their more prodigal successor, in seventeen years, has increased to more than five hundred millions.' But besides adding in this almost incredible manner to the national debt, a 'further sum of six millions sterling has been annually raised from the year 1798, by triple assessments, voluntary contributions, income tax, convoy duty, and other measures of finance, equally new and extraordinary.' The expences of five years of war, ending in 1797, were triple those of the same number of years of war, ending in 1749. The difference between the money actually received, and the sums for which the nation stood indebted by loans, is in 1801 above ten times greater than what it was in 1762. How all this can have been effected must appear a paradox to any one who does not consider the various grounds upon which the minister acted.—At one time he proposes to raise the supplies within the year; at another time he recurs to loans, to benevolences, and pecuniary proofs of loyalty; and, on a third occasion, to requisitions by triple assessments and an income tax;—projects, every one of which would, nevertheless, have failed if the dangerous step had not been proposed and adopted, with temporary success, of the stoppage of the Bank. 'By this last measure has the funding system acquired fresh vigour, and the apparent wealth of the nation been magnified in a most uncommon degree. Without any apprehension from the demands of its creditors, the Bank is now confined to no limits in the emission of its paper; a new mine has been laid open, where millions may be coined in a few hours; and the loans, which lately were deemed impracticable, may be raised with as little difficulty as they have been voted.' It is evidently impossible to reason on the effects of this new system:—such a facility of creating wealth will, most proba-

bly, be gradually destroyed by its own internal operations, and the increase of competitors in the country banks.

It is curious to observe how strangely Mr. Pitt has varied from himself in his own estimation of finance. At one period smuggling was to be prevented;—a commutation was made with the public—and he assumed to himself the merit of reducing certain taxes on tea and spirits, without diminishing the revenue. Shortly afterwards he forgets his former principles, and loads these very articles 'with heavier duties than had ever been heaped upon them by any of his predecessors.' Wine, sugar, tobacco, have in a similar manner become the means of increased income. The management of the sinking fund cannot, in our confined limits, be made intelligible to the reader; but it appears, that, 'in the course of five years, above ten millions have been raised to pay off the difference between the estimated and the real surplus of the consolidated fund.' This is a melancholy subject, and our author leaves us with no very flattering prospects. If peace were made immediately, 'twenty-five millions must be annually raised in taxes for the mere purpose of providing for the national debt; and the whole amount of the annual expenditure will considerably exceed thirty-two millions.'

These are the chief features of Mr. Pitt's administration, in point of finance; the detail of which is placed in a very clear point of view by our author, and merits the attention of every one who studies this branch of politics. Fickle and inconsistent in his mode of raising the supplies, the late minister seems to have been equally fickle and inconsistent in expending them. He asked, and he received; he squandered, and no inquiry ensued. To a person enjoying such unbounded confidence some allowances are doubtless to be made:—the nation itself must come in for a share of the blame; nor must the spoiled child be severely condemned for breaking the play-things he so easily acquired. The amount of our taxes, the amount of our poors' rates, the amount of the national debt, terrify the most sanguine admirer of the late measures; the apparent insensibility of the people to their actual state does not however arise, as our author seems to apprehend, from the 'flattering descriptions of our prosperity;' nor has it suffered itself 'to be allured by the song of a syren;'—a dread of worse consequences opened its purse without reserve, in too many instances, to the late minister; he availed himself of this confidence to its utmost limits; and the difficulties with which he has now left the nation to struggle, so occupy the public attention, and absorb every thought, that little time can be employed on the past, or the various steps by which they have been brought to their present woeful situation. It is in vain to expostulate on the misconduct of a pilot, who, conscious at length of his own want of skill, has quitted the helm in a storm: but there are many judicious remarks in this work, which, we are confident, may be of great service in the future management of the vessel.

ART. 15.—*Considerations on the present State of Europe, with respect to Peace, or a further Prosecution of the War.* 8vo. 3s. Debrett. 1801.

England, the monopoliser of the trade of the whole world—the

possessor of an invincible armada—capable of resisting and giving law to the universe, is to carve for itself upon this globe; and all the nations, at least of Europe, are to bow down to its high pretensions. For the obtaining of our proud pre-eminence in peace and war, it is necessary only to have immense fleets and immense standing armies, while the maintenance of so great a military establishment scarcely enters into the calculations of our politician. We may judge of the extent of his political views by the coolness with which he speaks of the opportunity lost of 'destroying the whole marine of Denmark,' an opportunity which 'may possibly never occur again;' as if the destruction of the marine of a power with whom this country has kept unbroken the ties of peace and amity for so many centuries could be an object of satisfaction to any Englishman, or any one who knew the importance of preserving the existence of the state of Denmark to the welfare of this country. If the views of our politician could be realised, it would be said of us, as of the sons of Ishmael, 'Our hands are against every man, and every man's hands against us.'

ART. 16.—*A Letter to John Cartwright, Esq. from C. Wyvill.* 8vo. York. 1801.

Major Cartwright had projected 'an association for protecting liberty and property from the dangers of despotism and anarchy, and for perpetuating the limited monarchy of this united kingdom, by effecting a parliamentary reform, through parliament itself, on the genuine principles of the constitution.' On this topic he consulted Mr. Wyvill, and entered rather largely into a defence of universal suffrage. To this part Mr. Wywill objects, both from the opposition that such a mode of reform must meet with from the rich and powerful, and also from the state of morals in the united kingdom, which does not seem at present favourable to such a plan of representation. The extension of the right of suffrage to householders appears adequate to every good purpose, and as much as the practical politician can desire; and this the writer thinks would be the best bond of union for all parties who wish for a reform with the maintenance of the constitution. He is of opinion also that the disappointment of their hopes in the conduct of Mr. Pitt should not destroy their confidence in men of all parties; and Mr. Fox, from his experience, adversity, philanthropy, and scorn of power, deserves to be looked up to as the firm asserter and defender of old English liberty and property. Whatever may be the speculations of these worthy patriots, we cannot do otherwise than exclaim—

'Aliud tempus alios mores postulat.'

ART. 17.—*Pandora's Box, and the Evils of Britain; with effectual, just, and equitable Means for their Annihilation; and for the Preservation of the Peace, Happiness, and Prosperity of the Country. By John Broadley, Merchant.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Vernor *and* Hood. 1801.

With the best intentions in the world, this merchant becomes the physician of the state; and has discovered the seat of the disease, and remedy. Confident as he is in his discovery, we are equally confident in our prognostications that his remedy will never be applied. The chief evil is indeed 'the loss of our liberties in the suspension of the

Habeas-Corpus act:—loss, because they never can, they never will, be restored, until the legislature, by acts founded on principles just and natural, relieves the distress, and destroys jacobinism, by thus regaining the full and complete affections of the people.' A great but inferior evil is the want of a proper system in the management of the poor; and it is proposed in the body of the work that these should be divided into two classes—the agricultural and the commercial, each to be supported, separately, by the gains from agriculture and commerce. Hence it is presumed, that, as the overseers in each class will be well acquainted with their respective arts, their poor will be provided with labour, and maintained at a very little expence. Hence poor-houses, work-houses in their present form, soup-shops, &c. will disappear; and, at the same time, barracks, volunteer corps, and a standing army, will be found unnecessary. The invalids of the army are to be provided for by the agricultural, those of the navy by the commercial, class. This division is, in the supplement, discovered to be inadequate; and a third class is proposed, to be denominated the mineral, which is to provide for all the poor engaged in coal-pits and mines; and we doubt not, that, if there were the least probability of any scheme like the present being attended to, many other classes would start up, and no small confusion would arise and repeatedly demand the assistance of the gentlemen of the robe to determine to what class a pauper should be assigned. On the evils of the income-tax, and the necessary spirit of extortion ensuing from it, the remarks of this writer are just; and we are glad to see a merchant not despairing of the possibility of an end being put to the national debt. But to effect so great a purpose, frugality and courage are equally requisite; and our watering-places in the summer, and the fashionable world of masquerades in the winter, will give the best idea of the people who are to be induced to relinquish some present gratification for the future interest of themselves and their families.

ART. 18.—*An Argument against Extermination: occasioned by Dr. Duigenan's Representation of the present Political State of Ireland. By a Friend to the United Kingdom.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1801.

Since the union of the British kingdoms the violence of faction seems gradually to be disappearing, and all parties are willing to bury in oblivion the unhappy effects of the late commotions. The horrid language held by some fanatical persons against the Catholics is now giving way to sentiments more worthy of human beings, and an argument against extermination is unnecessary; for the war-whoop of Dr. Duigenan is no longer heard, and the Catholics of Ireland will soon be esteemed as good and as faithful subjects as the Catholics in this part of the united kingdom, the loyalty of whose sentiments has not, during this reign, been ever called in question. If, however, any one have been led away by Dr. Duigenan's misrepresentations, this work may with propriety be put into his hands to correct the more glaring of his errors.

RELIGION.

ART. 19.—*The Reign of Messiah: a Sermon, preached at the Scots' Church, London Wall, May 13th, 1798, before the Correspondent Board in London of the Society in Scotland, (incorporated by Royal Charter) for propagating Christian Knowledge in the Highlands and Islands. By James Steven, Minister of the Scots' Church, Crown Court, Covent-Garden.* 8vo. Published by the Author, Thornhaugh-Street, Bedford-Square.

The Messiah's kingdom is a proper object of the Christian's contemplation; and particularly before an institution formed with the laudable purpose of extending the knowledge of it in those parts where it has been much obscured by ignorance and superstition. The preacher has selected, for his text on this subject, the celebrated prophecy of Daniel on the approach of one like the Son of Man to the Ancient of Days: But instead of confining our attention to this grand and important vision, he begins with the distinction 'between the glory essential to the deity of Christ, and that which belongs to the office he assumed.' Now this might have been well in a discourse on the divinity of Christ: but how it could arise out of his text, in which there is not the least allusion to that divinity, and which refers solely to the government of Christ in his human capacity, we are at a loss to discover. We come, however, to a better train of investigation, when the preacher takes a view of Christ's kingdom, belonging to him as its sole proprietor and lord—as in its whole constitution spiritual and divine—as entirely separate from civil jurisdiction—and as self-established. The universality of its extent is a pleasing theme; but a necessary event is rather anticipated from incidental circumstances, than likely soon to be realised.

'Look now to Rome, and see what a wonder-working Providence hath done—the ecclesiastical tyrant driven from his throne by that very infidelity which his own silly pageantry engendered, the papal hierarchy abolished, and the enormous fabric of superstition, which had stood for ages, trodden in the dust! Political and deistical speculators may contemplate such events as favourable to their views, while mercenary priests perhaps deplore them, as only tending to the ruin of Christianity; but the sound religious observer, with the Bible in his hand, sees the matter in another light—as a grand and necessary step toward its farther spread among the nations.' P. 28.

ART. 20.—*The Revelation of St. John the Divine, compared with itself and the rest of Scripture; with occasional Corrections of the Translation.* 8vo. 2s. Hurst. 1801.

The corrections of the translation are few and not very important, the notes are very sparingly introduced, difficulties remain unresolved, and a sixpenny pamphlet would have contained all that the editor chooses to give us of his own on the Revelations. For what public advantage he has printed the text, which is in every person's hands in the common Bible, we do not see; nor do we behold any great benefit in this mode of publication likely to accrue to himself.

ART. 21.—*The Afflictions of England a Warning from God—A Sermon, preached before the University of Cambridge, on Sunday, November 2, 1800, by Robert Luke, B. D. &c.* 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1800.

Nations as well as individuals are subjects of God's moral government; and the punishments inflicted by Providence on wicked nations ought to excite our own to repentance and amendment. These subjects are well insisted on in this discourse:—but the writer is rather more attentive to the matter than the style of his work, as may be seen from the following sentence, in his epistle dedicatory to the reader:—'But what, if therefore there be no occasion to exhort the people?'

ART. 22.—*The Example of Christ enforced, as a Motive to Benevolence. By R. Ward.* 8vo. 1s. Hurst.

'It may not be improper to inform the public, that the following discourse was written *calamo currente*, and without the most distant idea of publication.

'Any profits, which may result from it, will be given to the poor.' p. 3.

This *currente-calamo* writer must not expect to be read by any person who has a single spare moment to sit down in his closet; for such a person would inquire for works the authors of which had some regard for their readers.

ART. 23.—*A Funeral Sermon, delivered at the Interment of an exemplary Parish Priest. By Laurence Halloran, D. D. To which is added, an Elegy, on the Death of the Right Honorable Lord Viscount Andover, respectfully inscribed to T. W. Coke, Esq. M. P.* 4to. 2s. Rivingtons.

This sermon was also written, we are told in the preface, 'currente calamo;' but such a poor excuse for obtruding hasty thoughts on the public is too hackneyed to be received with any indulgence. We would recommend to the writer to withdraw it, if possible, for the present; and, after exercising his correcting hand upon it for nine months (we will not sentence him, according to the poet, to nine years), to take the advice of his friends on the propriety of its reappearance. After such an exercise he will not 'tread again in the vestiges' of 'currente-calamo' authorship.

ART. 24.—*Two Sermons, on the Alarm of Scarcity, and on the proper Improvement of the late General Fast, preached at the Chapel in West-Gate, Wakefield. By Thomas Johnstone.* 8vo. Johnson. 1801.

Very different are the statements given of our country by persons placed in different situations of life. From the pulpit we are told what

'it is in vain to conceal—that we are a suffering people. The punishments of God are abroad in our land; and, unless we be more insensible than the very brutes, or are determined to yield to a wide-spreading infatuation, which nothing can dissipate, or which can be destroyed only by our own destruction, we shall not attempt to deny that we are pressed with those heavy burdens, harassed with those perplexing difficulties, and alarmed with those terrifying prospects,

which would render it somewhat more than a matter of suspicion that we are under the frowns of an offended Deity. P. 36.

Under this apprehension of our national distress, the preacher makes very appropriate exhortations to various classes of life, and calls on every individual to examine how far he may, by his own conduct, have increased the general calamity. To one class of men among us the following address cannot be too often repeated; for how can that man pretend to any regard for a free constitution, or true religion, whose gain arises from a base traffic in the life of his fellow-creatures.

'There is one other body of men to whom I should peculiarly wish the question to be asked: Are there not with you, even with you, sins against the Lord your God? These are the hardened and the brutal traffickers in human flesh, the slave merchants, who, devoured with the thirst of gain, can tear from their native homes, from all the endearments of life, from all that intercourse, which love, which friendship, or the warm emotions of a parent's heart, can render sweet and attractive, thousands of their fellow-creatures, and doom them, for life, to slavery's galling labour. This is, indeed, a crying sin against us; and while permitted to exist in so wanton a violation of humanity, as not to have even the plea of policy or profit in its favor, it must draw down upon us the divine wrath. While this horrid stain remains upon our national character, never shall we be at a loss to account for any combination of misfortunes which may rise against us; for, if it exist not as the immediately preceding cause of trouble, so wisely arranged are the events of Providence for the correction of vice, that sooner or later such a profligate and abandoned protraction of iniquity must be followed by ruin. What we have yet suffered from the evils of war, from ruined trade, or from failing harvests, are trifles to what we may expect from the Great Avenger of human blood. Were we, indeed, finally plunged into the ocean, and lost in the wide waste of overwhelming waters, to become a subject of vain inquiry to the future mariner, could the eye of enlightened humanity, as it read our infamy in the annals of past history, do any other than own the divine justice in the event? Should we not be pointed to by the instructive moralist of future generations, as an awful memento, that there is a God who judgeth in the earth, that there is a God who avengeth the violation of the sacred rights of man?' P. 45.

ART. 25.—*A Sermon preached in the Parish-Church of All-Saints in Stamford, on Friday the 13th of February, 1801, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By the Rev. Robert Lascelles Carr, Curate of that Parish.* 4to. 1s. 6d. White.

The sins of the nation are enumerated in very plain language. 'Villany of those detestable monopolisers, those infamously hard-hearted and unfeeling monsters who delight in profiting by the miseries of their fellow-creatures,' is a theme not to be alluded to without caution; and the 'murder of our pious and amiable Charles' might have been equally stigmatised, though the epithet 'damnable,' which

approaches much to a word too frequent in common life, had been omitted. A little more attention to the choice of words, and elegance of style, might have rendered this composition more tolerable, while the sentiment would not have been weakened.

ART. 26.—*A Memoir on the Importance and Practicability of translating and printing the Holy Scriptures in the Chinese Language; and of circulating them in that vast Empire. Including an Account of the Introduction, Progress, and present State of Catholic Missions in that Country. By William Moseley.* 8vo. 1s. Chapman.

A number of very well-disposed individuals lately expended a considerable sum in an ineffectual attempt to establish missionaries at Otaheite. Had the money been employed in the manner recommended by this writer, some beneficial effects might have been reasonably expected from the undertaking; and it is a disgrace to us, as a Protestant nation, that, with our great advantages, so little is done to promote the knowledge of Christianity among the nations now lying in deplorable ignorance, with whom our commercial connexions are very considerable. The translation of the Bible into Chinese may be executed with great ease: the dispersion of copies in that vast empire would not be difficult, and it would probably form a lucrative article of commerce. At any rate this memoir deserves the serious attention of religious societies in this country; and we hope that the writer will persist in his very important and laudable undertaking.

ART. 27.—*A congratulatory Epistle from a true Churchman to the reverend and learned John Martin, occasioned by his Letters on Non-Conformity.* 8vo. 1s. Button *and* Son. 1801.

Mr. Martin is a dissenting minister, whose affection for the church of England has given offence to some of his brethren. One of them probably has put on the mask of a true churchman, and in this character invites Mr. Martin to flee into the bosom of the church—an invitation which, however ironically meant, the person addressed should not without serious examination reject.

ART. 28.—*A Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World; accompanied with a Persuasive to Religious Moderation. To which is prefixed an Account of Atheism, Deism, Theophilanthropism, Judaism, Mahometanism, and Christianity, adapted to the present Times. By John Evans, A.M. &c.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Crosby *and* Letterman. 1801.

This is an improved edition of a very valuable work, written with true Christian temper and moderation, giving a just view of the various tenets of religious societies, and inculcating the proper lesson to be drawn from such a view;—namely, tolerance of each other's opinions, universal benevolence, and Christian charity.

AGRICULTURE.

ART. 29.—*Letters from his Excellency George Washington, President of the United States of America, to Sir John Sinclair, Bart. M.P. on Agricultural and other interesting Topics. Engraved from the original Letters, so as to be an exact Fac-Simile of the Hand-Writing of that celebrated Character.* 4to. 1l. 1s. *Boards.* Nicol. 1800.

As general Washington was born a planter or agriculturist, it is

not surprising that, when his military career was finished, he should return to his fields. To speak therefore of an 'anxiety to record his predilection for agricultural improvement,' and his 'preference of this to every other pursuit,' is at least a trifling motive. A language 'more *germane* to the matter' would be, that sir J. Sinclair is anxious to record that he corresponded with the Cincinnatus of America. These Letters in general show the general's anxiety for the improvement of a science on which his consequence and prosperity so much depended. Like his other works, they are marked by plain good sense and judgement, rather than adorned by genius or polished language.

The letters are eight in number, engraven in imitation of the general's hand-writing; but this method, which could only be recommended by its curiosity, is strangely spoiled, by the alteration of the mode of dating, after the fourth letter. This is not Washington's mode; and a similar reason might have changed his free manly writing to a stiff Roman character or a refined Italic. In reality, these letters might have been written by a plain West-country farmer, without procuring him any portion of literary fame, or detracting from his agricultural credit.

ART. 30.—*A Dissertation on Rural Improvements; being the Substance of an Introduction to the Ninth Volume of the Letters and Papers of the Bath and West of England Society. To which is added, a Postscript, containing a Georgical Address to the Members, on his Resignation of the Office of Secretary to that Society. By William Matthews.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1800.

While the ninth volume of the Transactions of the Bath Society must be for a time postponed, this interesting introduction, in a separate form, may engage a little of our attention. It is a clear and judicious explanation of the chief objects of the land-holder and agiculturist, with judicious hints for improvement. What our author observes of the size of farms claims particular regard, as we have had occasion to remark that this society seemed occasionally to lean too much to the refinements of modern innovators. Mr. Matthews has explained the subject, we think, clearly and satisfactorily. The hint that raising the rents, by animating the exertions of the farmer, may be ultimately more to the general advantage than keeping them to their former standard, by which inactivity is encouraged, will probably not be lost. We highly approve his remarks on cattle, and think with him that the clean shapely ox will fatten more quickly and improve more rapidly than the thick disproportioned animal. We shall select his observations respecting wool.

'Any effort to supply, from native produce, the place of foreign import, in so great an article of consumption as wool, may prove ineffectual; and, on our present scale of manufacture and trade, most likely will do so. It may be found impossible to supply all our looms and merchants from our own flocks, however improved, however attempted to be multiplied: but though multiplication cannot be pushed beyond natural bounds, improvement of our flocks, by that selection and admixture which have been already dwelt on, may go far. Just as far as it can be carried wisely, it is our duty to carry it. And though the system of driving our flocks over the hills of extensive

districts, to counteract varieties of atmosphere, cannot be realised here as in Spain, we may by selection, by crossing, by cotting in winter, &c. gradually add a much larger number of fine fleeces than the difference between "300,000 and 500,000" annually. And perhaps much more than this may be done, with some national advantage too, as to the carcase, without materially trenching on the supply of different kinds of wool wanted for the various other woollen manufactures of the kingdom; the loss of any of which must be guarded against.—But if, after all, there be found existing positive reasons why we shall want a foreign import of this raw material, those positive reasons need not seriously alarm us. Our tried and known ability to purchase and pay, so long as that ability lasts, (and it will last as long as foreign demand for our broad cloth) will always secure us a preference, directly or indirectly, in foreign markets. Any exception to this rule must be temporary, and will most likely be gradually rectified when it shall occur; for even a scarcity will soon be followed by a reflux and abatement in the market, as in the cases of most other marketable articles. In the mean time there can be no doubt but that for home consumption the quantity of English wool, so far as it can be spared for making best cloth, may be rendered sufficiently fine for all the purposes of warmth and decency. These considerations may serve to set the minds of Englishmen much at ease respecting apprehensions of any permanent difficulty or advance in the price of woollen clothing. Corn, fruits, and fat and lean animals, vary in price, according to the general demand and the quantity on the market: so also cotton, hemp, flax, silk, wool, &c. And we have small reason to apprehend, from the present state of Europe and its manufactures, that this country is in danger of suffering any material prohibition or rivalship.

'These considerations are judged seasonable, by way of balance to the otherwise gloomy idea that our power of home supply is unequal to all our demands for wool; and that it must be unequal seems clear from various points of calculation. For if it be true, as has been stated, that in 1797 were imported into this country more than 30,000 packs, each about 2 cwt. or 6,720,000lb. of Spanish wool; that in a time of peace an average import of 25,000 packs, or 5,600,000lb. may, according to former averages, be required; and that, reckoning 2½lb. to the fleece, and allowing for casualties, several millions of additional sheep and lambs in this country would be required to supply the demand, we could not expect to augment our stock of sheep in that proportion without changing the taste of the inhabitants very largely from other articles to mutton, as food. And could we even do that, the large decrease of the number of beeves and calves must alarmingly decrease the home supply of neat skin for leather; the different kinds of which have already advanced far more in price than wool has done. Nor is leather so little important but that a proportionable increase of imported skins must be had, under all the expensive difficulties that may possibly attend it;—perhaps greater at some future time than the import of wool itself.' P. 50.

Our author's Georgic is no contemptible specimen of didactic poetry.

'Ornari res ipsa negat, contenta doceri.'

ART. 31.—*Communications concerning the Agriculture and Commerce of America; containing Observations on the Commerce of Spain with her American Colonies in Time of War. Written by a Spanish Gentleman in Philadelphia, this present Year*, 1800. *With sundry other Papers concerning the Spanish Interests. Edited in London by William Tatham.* 7*s.* 6*d.* Ridgeway. 1800.

Spain begins to open her eyes to her real interests; and this Spanish gentleman wishes to encourage her to more libe al pursuits. He has studied Dr. Adam Smith, understands the real advantages of trade, and can distinguish between the broad scope of commerce and the private views of the trader. This pamphlet will be useful to those who are engaging in a connection with Spanish America, and to those who wish for some account of several settlements whose names are yet scarcely known to the merchants of this country.

MECHANICAL ARTS.

ART. 32.—*An Essay on the Theory and Practice of Bleaching, wherein the Sulphuret of Lime is recommended as a Substitute for Pot-Ash. By William Higgins, M. R. I. A. &c.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Vernor *and* Hood.

Mr. Higgins, in this very accurate Essay, explains the process of making flax, so far as regards its separation and discoloration, in language equally perspicuous and discriminated. His great object was to discover a substitute for pot-ash, a material of which the bleacher finds the supply precarious and expensive. From a hint of Mr. Kirwan, that saline hepars might be advantageously employed, Mr. Higgins tried the calcareous hepar, or sulphuret of lime. We shall transcribe his account of its advantages and preparation.

'—The result of which has been, that the use of the sulphuret of lime may be most advantageously combined with that of the oxymuriated lime, and that thus cloth may be perfectly whitened without the use of a particle of alkali. This then alone would seem to give it a decided preference over the methods at present in use, while at the same time it possesses peculiar advantages, and is exempt from the principal objections to which other substitutes are liable; for, first, quicklime and sulphur, the materials of which the calcareous hepar consists, are both articles of trivial expence, especially as the latter enters but sparingly into the composition; secondly, their combination is effected in the easiest and most expeditious manner possible, and perfectly level with the capacity of the meanest workman; thirdly, as the manner of its application is by steeping the cloth in it cold, the saving of fuel is a matter of great magnitude; and, lastly, there is no danger to be apprehended, in the use of it, from the unskilfulness or negligence of the workman, as it appears to be incapable of injuring the texture of the cloth.

'The sulphuret of lime is prepared in the manner following:—sulphur, or brimstone in fine powder, four pounds, lime well slaked and sifted twenty pounds, water sixteen gallons; these are all to be well mixed and boiled for about half an hour in an iron vessel, stir-

ring them briskly from time to time. Soon after the agitation of boiling is over, the solution of the sulphuret of lime clears, and may be drawn off free from the insoluble matter, which is considerable, and which rests upon the bottom of the boiler*. The liquor in this state is pretty nearly of the colour of small beer, but not quite so transparent.

'Sixteen gallons of fresh water are afterwards to be poured upon the insoluble dregs in the boiler, in order to separate the whole of the sulphuret from them. When this clears (being previously well agitated) it is also to be drawn off and mixed with the first liquor; to these again, thirty-three gallons more of water may be added, which will reduce the liquor to a proper standard for steeping the cloth.

'Here we have (an allowance being made for evaporation, and for the quantity retained in the dregs) sixty gallons of liquor from four pounds of brimstone.

'Although sulphur by itself is not in any sensible degree soluble in water, and lime but very sparingly so, water dissolving but about one seven-hundredth part of its weight of lime; yet the sulphuret of lime is highly soluble†.' P. 57.

By this process the saving is immense; for, in bleaching only, in Ireland, 215,307 pounds of pot-ash are annually consumed, at the rate of 65*l.* per ton; while the liquor of the sulphuret of lime is not only much cheaper, but the production of our own country: the discovery, therefore, is highly important.

In the preface, Mr. Higgins claims, with great propriety, some discoveries lately published by the French chemists, which he gave to the public nine years ago, in his Comparative View of the Phlogistic and Antiphlogistic Doctrines. These are the appearance of bile already formed in the blood, and the method of determining the quantity of carbon contained in steel by means of the volatile sulphureous acid. He explains the circumstances which led him to the examination of the effects of this acid, viz. the influence it had on the phlogistic controversy, in which he almost stood alone as a supporter of the new system. This work we noticed in our LXIXth volume (p. 545); and we take credit to ourselves, that, in reviewing it, though *then* opposing our author's system, we represented these facts 'as important beyond the line of the present controversy.' We ought to add that our author differs in some degree from the French philosophers in his explanation of the decomposition of water; but it is not necessary for us to engage in the disquisition. We think the account, on the whole, ingenious and just. In reality,

* Although lime is one of the constituent principles of the sulphuret, yet being so intimately united to the sulphur, it has no longer the property of lime; upon the same principle that sulphuric acid in sulphat of pot-ash has not the property of that acid.

† When the above proportion of lime and sulphur is boiled with only twelve gallons of water, the sulphuret partly crystallizes upon cooling, and, when once crystallized, it is not easy of solution.'

Mr. Higgins anticipated Mrs. Fulhame's system, though his work was seemingly not known to this ingenious lady.

MATHEMATICS.

ART. 33.—*Tracts on the Resolution of affected Algebraic Equations, by Dr. Halley; Mr. Raphson's and Sir Isaac Newton's Methods of Approximation. Published by Francis Maseres, Esq. F. R. S. Cursitor Baron of the Court of Exchequer.* 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.* White, 1800.

After a very laborious inquiry into the resolution of several equations, baron Maseres gives the preference to Mr. Raphson's method of approximation. To make this truth clear, he has re-published Halley's 'New, exact, and easy Method of finding the Roots of any Equation generally, and that without any previous Reduction,' which he has explained in such a manner as to render every part familiar to any one conversant with the first rudiments of algebra. This treatise led him to the arithmetical problem proposed by colonel Titus, of which he gives two solutions; the one already published by Dr. Wallis, the other communicated by Mr. W. Frend. On both of these he enlarges in his usual manner, and bestows the preference on the latter, because it involves only an equation of four, whilst the other rises to one of twelve dimensions. The two next tracts, one the tenth chapter of Kersey's algebra, the other respecting the errors in Clairant's reasoning on negative quantities, are re-printed, from the baron's appendix to Mr. W. Frend's Principles of Algebra; and the general method of investigating the two or three first figures of the least root of an equation is re-printed, from the third volume of the Scriptores Logarithmici. A short tract follows, presenting a specimen of Vieta's method of resolving algebraic equations of any order by approximation, in which the baron does justice to the father of the science, by attributing to him the original doctrine of resolving equations by approximation, as, by treading in his footsteps, sir Isaac Newton, Raphson, De Lagny, and Halley, have been enabled to improve the art. The last tract contains Remarks on the Number of negative and impossible Roots in Algebraic Equations, by Mr. Frend; in which he lays down a very simple method for discovering the number in any equation. He first finds the number of real roots by the methods stated in the second part of his Principles of Algebra; he then changes the signs of those terms where the index of x is an odd number, and finds the number of roots as before in this transformed equation, which is the number of negative roots in the original equation. The sum of the real and the negative roots he then subtracts from the highest index of the unknown number in the original equation, which gives the number of impossible roots in the original equation; and this appears to us to be the shortest method hitherto devised on this intricate subject. The curious in such researches might amuse themselves with the comparison of Mr. Frend's method with those laid down by Maclaurin, Emerson, Waring, and others: and, from a number of examples, the fact may be ascertained. The baron's prolixity will prevent this work from being in ge-

neral request, though the pursuit of his methods will facilitate the progress of every student in the higher parts of algebra.

EDUCATION.

ART. 34.—*A Method of making Abridgments; or, easy and certain Rules for analysing Authors. Divided into Two Parts; the First, containing Preliminary Explanations, and the Rules for making Abridgments; the Second, the Applications of those Rules to various Selections from the best Authors. By the Abbé Gaultier. Parts I. and II. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards.* Elmsly *and* Bremner. 1801.

The grammar of a language is too much neglected in every country. A certain number of rules is committed to memory; but the connexion of words with each other in a sentence, of sentences in a period, of periods in a paragraph, is seldom meditated upon, much less is the young pupil inducted into the science by systematical and easy practice. The work presented to the public is an improvement upon the common exercise of parsing, and may be adopted with great advantage in our boarding schools. It teaches the analysis of sentences, but is rather unfortunate in the hard terms by which it communicates both its precepts and examples. The latter, more especially, could not have been communicated in too plain a manner. Instances from common life would have made the subject comprehensible and popular; but Calypso, Ulysses, Ogygia, Penelope, are sounds to which the ears of an English boy or girl are not ordinarily familiarised. Another unfortunate circumstance is, that the grammar is taken entirely from the Latin language, and verbs and prepositions are said to govern cases; when, in the English language, no such government takes place, and no alteration of terms is even admissible.

The sentence is analysed into its subject and attribute; both of which admit of various modifications called adjuncts. Thus Thomas speaks. Thomas is the subject, because of Thomas something is affirmed: speaks is the attribute, because speaking is the thing affirmed of Thomas. If we should say Thomas speaks softly, then softly is the adjunct of the attribute, because it modifies the speaking of Thomas. Now, these adjuncts may 'modify, complete, or determine (the author says) the meaning of either noun or verb in a sentence;' but when he advances to those which complete the signification of the verb, he soars, most assuredly, beyond the comprehension of all unacquainted with the Latin; for 'the direct completive adjunct of the verb or attribute is the accusative case;' and, as we have no accusative case, our learner may here very well be puzzled. If this entire sentence were struck out, the work would receive no injury; for this hard-named adjunct is declared in the next sentence to express 'the person or thing which receives an action, and answers to the question whom or what.'

The nature of these adjuncts may be easily learned; and, by practice, will lead the scholar to study his language critically. The division into primary or secondary, or those which can or cannot be suppressed in a sentence, we highly approve of. Thus 'a contented mind

will make a man happy in every condition,' is a sentence with a secondary adjunct, namely, in every condition which is compatible with happiness. The division also of sentences is good; and, from a few easy principles, the learner is brought to the method of making abridgements, which is explained by a sufficient number of instances. This method is in itself ingenious; and the use of different colours, in distinguishing parts of a paragraph, may afford a fund of amusement and instruction to young people.

In the second part of this work the rules for making abridgements are exemplified in a very ample manner by extracts from the Spectator, Atterbury, and Swift. These should be studied with great attention by teachers, or they will not see the propriety of rejecting many parts; a propriety indeed which is founded on the previous rules; and it is only by frequent practice that the art of abridging can be acquired. When the teacher has thus made himself master of the art, we recommend to him to begin with his scholars by the easiest lessons, and to pursue the same system in every lesson which is rehearsed. Thus, if the class be reading a speech in Milton, let one at least in it abridge its sentiments as he proceeds, according to the previous rules; and afterwards let all write down their own abridgements more at leisure. Thus the art will be gradually acquired, and the pupils will have opportunities of daily showing the expansion of their minds and the maturity of their judgements. We recommend also continual questions on the reasons for introducing or suppressing any circumstance, by which means the previous rules will gain strength in the memory, and be applied afterwards with the utmost facility. As this is in some degree a new exercise, and of very extensive utility, we cannot forbear repeating our obligations to the author for introducing it among us; and we shall be happy to find that, by means of our recommendation, it becomes more generally known and practised in schools, as well as encouraged by private teachers.

The work in its present state we recommend to teachers rather than to pupils. The former will soon learn the method, and may then make it familiar to their scholars, and the scholars will then peruse the whole treatise with pleasure. A school that follows this plan strenuously, for a few years, will send out scholars better acquainted with their vernacular language than the greater part of those who have completed a course of education at our more public seminaries and universities.

ART. 35.—*Amusing and instructive Conversations for Children of Five Years. From the French of the Abbé Gaultier.* 12mo. 2s. *Boards.* West *and* Hughes. 1800.

This work is designed to instruct by an infantine play. The mother of a family distributes counters to her children in an evening. She proposes sentences, in which are nouns, verbs, and particles. The child puts a blue counter on the noun, a red on the verb, and a white on the particles: if he mistake, he loses his counter; if he be correct, he receives back his counter, with the addition of a second from the mother. The book affords a vast variety of instances; and thus, even

in play, children will learn those rudiments of grammar which in many schools subject them to corporeal punishment as well as anguish of mind.

POETRY.

ART. 36.—*Poems on various Subjects: in which is a most beautiful and novel Description of his Majesty's Review of the Kentish Volunteers; August the 1st, 1799. By William Pinn.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. No Publisher's Name. 1800.

As Mr. William Pinn has given a tolerably correct account of the extent of his accomplishments, and has *endeavoured* to convey to his reader a detail of the motives which induced him to write, in a poem addressed to the critic, by quoting the three first stanzas of the said poem we shall give him the enviable privilege of becoming his own reviewer.

It's not for thee, myself to please,
I raise my feeble pen;
Ask not for favour, fame, or fees,
Nor judgment from thy pen.

'No muse invoke, but little quote,
No education mine;
Just as I talk, I write by rote,
No grammar to refine.

'When I a leisure moment find,
Releas'd from daily toil;
What flows from my unletter'd mind
I sketch, worse thoughts to foil.' P. 1.

ART. 37.—*The Fate of Bertha; a Poem. By William Lucas.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Westley. 1800.

O horrible! oh horrible! most horrible!

In the compass of about four hundred lines we have an insidious courtship, a rape, a storm, an avenging murder, and an act of suicide, narrated without energy or pathos. The author of these rhymes, which he has dignified with the name of a poem, says, in his preface, that 'the season of poetry is peace.'—We are not disposed to give an unqualified assent to his assertion; but of this we are confident, that his hour of inspiration is not yet come.

ART. 38.—*Convivialia et Saltatoria: or, a few Thoughts upon Feasting and Dancing: a Poem, in Two Parts. To which is annexed a Poetical Epistle in Praise of Tobacco, &c. By G. Orchestikos.* 8vo. 1s. West *and* Hughes. 1800.

These 'Thoughts in Verse' might have been more properly entitled The Humours of a Country Assembly. Mr. Orchestikos adopts the measure, but, alas! like many of his precursors, he inherits not the wit of Anstey. We have heard the sparkling poignancy of the author of the New Bath Guide compared to a batch of prime champagne—Mr. Orchestikos does not appear to us to exceed the quality of vapid small-beer.

ART. 39.—*Eliza; an Elegy.* 8vo. 1s. No Publisher's Name. 1800.

This elegy records the author's sorrows for the loss of a female friend, who died at the age of nineteen. Pope has said of certain emotions of the mind—

'He best can paint them who can feel them most.'

Determined by this criterion, the author of this elegy feels very little indeed; it is superlatively puerile and affected. The introductory stanzas are dull dilatations of some of the ideas contained in the beginning of Gray's Elegy in a Country Church-Yard. On the death of Eliza all nature wails 'with torturous grief,' in the true style of common-place: the birds, as in poetic duty bound, cease their songs, and the heavens are very decently hung with black: the elfin race sing a dirge on this melancholy occasion: and we cannot but marvel that the ears of our author, who has been so highly gratified by their aërial minstrelsy, are not absolutely tortured by the ruggedness of stanzas like the following:

'Perhaps rescued from misery and woe,
What mortal is exempt from reversed fate?
Conveyed where pure and unmixt pleasures flow,
Nor language can describe, nor tongue relate.' P. 12.

But these, it should seem, are the words of Eliza; and the partiality of a lover may espy in them, perhaps, both pathos and sublimity. We can assure him, however, that, to common ears, they are harsh, and to common understandings unintelligible.

ART. 40.—*Original Poems, by Thomas Sanderson.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. *Boards.* Clarke. 1800.

It too frequently happens, that, when an author undertakes to present to the public a collection of the fugitive productions which have been received with civility or applause by the partiality of his acquaintance, the desire of making up a volume supersedes that nicety of selection which is requisite to the acquisition of true poetical fame. This seems to have been the case with Mr. Sanderson, who appears before us as a writer of miscellanies, odes, epistles, tales, fables, elegies, epitaphs, sonnets, and songs. Uniform success in these different styles of composition is a rare acquirement indeed. It is therefore no severe censure on Mr. Sanderson to affirm that some of his poetical effusions, especially those which seem to have been produced on the spur of the occasion, do not rise above that mediocrity which Horace has pronounced to be incompatible with genuine inspiration. He does not offend by gross faults; nor does he very frequently enrapture by striking beauties, either of language or of sentiment. The 'Ode to the Genius of Cumberland,' however, indicates much poetical capability: some passages of which are majestic, as the whole of it is pleasing. From this ode we shall select the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth stanzas, which happily describe the beauties of the lake of Derwent-water.

'O'er thy fair valleys, Keswick, I would range,
When, from the mountain's caves, no tempests break
On the soft rest of Derwent's peaceful lake,
Reflecting Alpine scen'ry on its breast;
When on the cot and sweetly-bosom'd grange
Have sunk the last beams of the roseate west;
When with a stream of silver light,
In many a chequer'd form,
Pale Cynthia tinges ev'ry mountain's height,
Each dell, and murm'ring rill, and hanging grove,
And precipice, where the fierce bird of Jove,
In pendant aerie, lives amidst the storm—
The conflicts rude of elemental war,
And marks, from its ethereal height, his prey from far.

'Sweet then the symphonies that breathe around,
In varied cadence, o'er this magic ground;—
The stream, soft tinkling down the channell'd rock,
The deeper rush of ruder water-fall,
The weather's bell, the shepherd's cheerful call,
Tending, with guardian-care, his fleecy flock;
Sweet are the sounds, wak'd by the zephyr's gale,
That come from hanging wood and lonely dale;
Sweet is the peasant's ev'ning song,
That calls to sport the village-throng;
The night jar's deeply-plaintive tone,
Slow, winding o'er the dusky lawn:
And sweet the vernal breeze,
That, sighing through the trees,
Shakes fragrance o'er the rude, romantic grot;
While Echo, from her airy cell,
Unwearied, catches, on symphonious shell,
The murmurs of each sweet expiring note!

'To scale thy hills, at morning's dawn, be mine,
Where useful ores in rocky caverns shine,
And no wild hordes of threat'ning aspect roam;
Where no volcano, from its central caves,
In spiry columns, shoots vitrescent waves,
That lay in ruins many a rural home!
Here let me breathe the elemental air;
And, on some breezy rock's aërial brow,
Catch the bright colours of Health's vermeil glow,
And all her temp'rate stores of blessings share:
Oft let me climb thy cliffs, from whence distil
The falling streams of medicated rill;
And whence salubrious herbs, in fragrant gales,
Diffuse their healing virtues o'er the vales:
Hence no contagion, with mephitic breath,
Sweeps o'er thy past'ral scenes, and scatters death.
But here Hygeia, of vermilion hues,
Prints, with majestic step, the morning dews,

Smiles on the swains, who, in their sylvan bow'rs,
Sit round their board of vegetable meals;
While on them Age, in slow gradations, steals,
Like Ev'ning's shades o'er Autumn's fading flow'rs!' p. 86.

We are surprised that Mr. Sanderson, who seems, by the general construction of his verses, to have a good ear, could tolerate the awkward, unmelodious division and cadence of the last line of the thirteenth stanza. Perhaps he is not aware that *tone* and *lawn*, which occur as correspondent endings in the fourteenth stanzas, are not legitimate rhymes, excepting in Cumberland and Westmoreland.

From the numerous list of subscribers who have patronised this little volume, we are led to suppose that its author is a man of very respectable character; and this supposition is corroborated by observing that the whole tenor of his composition indicates a well-regulated and benevolent mind.

ART. 41.—*The Canonization of Thomas ——, Esq. who has lately erected at East L——h, Dorset, a Monastery, and therein established a Body of Monks. The Stanzas by Sternold and Hopkins, Poets Laureate to the Monastery. The Notes by Addison, Archbishop Tillotson, Hume, Duigenan, Rennell, Bishop Newton, Voltaire, Bishop Sherlock, and Judge Blackstone.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kirby. 1801.

A gentleman in Dorsetshire is said to have afforded refuge to several monks from the continent, who follow the rules of their order on a part of his estate. This has given umbrage to some pretended advocate for the Protestant religion, who has evacuated his bile in a variety of wretched stanzas upon this occasion; to which are added notes full of bitterness against the Papists, and raking together all the outrages that have ever been committed by persons of this persuasion against the Protestants. We detest the spirit of persecution, whether exercised by Protestants or Papists; and this wretched publication savours too much of it for our commendation. If the gentleman hinted at has acted illegally, in establishing a monastical institution for Englishmen, there is a better mode of vindicating the constitution and preventing the introduction of such evil establishments into this country: but there is a great difference between giving refuge to unfortunate men, driven from their country by atrocious tyranny, and instituting a corporation of monks from our own countrymen. We shall rejoice to see the day of peace on many accounts; among which, we cannot but think the return of Popish priests, of monks, and nuns, to their own country, of no small importance; but, in their present unfortunate situation we do not wish to behold either them or their protector wantonly persecuted.

ART. 42.—*Signs of the Times, (a Poem) or the Downfal of the Pope and the Papal Hierarchy: with Observations on Six Hundred Sixty-six, the Number of the Roman Beast. Also, a Contrast between the Numbers Six and Seven. By William Scott.* 8vo. 1s. Crosby *and* Letterman. 1800.

Whatever signs there may be of the times in this poem, we can discover no signs of a poet in it, though a hundred verses on sixes and sevens may delight those who are fond of mystical arithmetic.

NOVELS.

ART. 43.—*Andrew Stuart, or the Northern Wanderer. A Novel. By Mary Ann Hanway, Author of Ellinor, or the World as it is. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards.* Lane. 1800.

Although the work before us is rather a collection of smaller histories than one united tale, (for, to use the author's own words, the notes are longer than the story) yet the novel-reader will at times be highly gratified by the wanderings of Andrew Stuart. We do not, however, approve of the fair writer's adoption of the jargon of her different personages. The frequent repetition of the *wee housee*, &c. gives no idea of Scotch conversation; and the landlord's assertion of his being *a knowing one—up to a thing or two—a rum kiddy, that could gammon the deep ones*, we are sorry to find even understood by the softer sex: such phrases are fit for the Newgate Calendar only.

ART. 44.—*Humbert Castle, or the Romance of the Rhône. A Novel. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards.* Lane. 1800.

On the perusal of this novel our thoughts were carried back to the works of those who wrote in our younger days. The mode in which it is written is far superior to that of the trash which is now daily obtruded upon the public. It is true that it might have been rendered more perfect, in many parts, if the author had bestowed upon it a little after-consideration: but there is nevertheless a strong *smack* of the old school in its form and construction, and the correctness of the language entitles it to much commendation.

ART. 45.—*The Man of Fortitude; or, Schedoni in England. By B. Frere. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards.* Wallis. 1801.

This is the production of an enthusiastic admirer of Rousseau's Emilius, who, in his zeal for infidelity, falls foul of every thing like Christian priests; and, after getting a notorious cut-throat appointed head of the Franciscans, sets the convent upon performing fraudulent miracles in so daring a manner as no juggler upon earth would have the impudence to attempt. B. Frere appears to be endowed with very respectable mental abilities; but this circumstance need not alarm any pious reader who may chance to take up these volumes; for the Christian system, which has stood the shock of so many Herculean infidels, has nothing to fear from the malicious sneer of a deistical novel writer.

ART. 46.—*Forbidden Apartments. A Tale. By William Linley. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards.* Lane. 1800.

The author of Forbidden Apartments seems to be highly sensible of man's religious obligations: and the subjugation of our passions to the revealed will of our Creator is the laudable doctrine firmly and steadily inculcated throughout these volumes. In point of grammatical precision, however, the writer is frequently defective; and the distance of thirteen years from the parting of the baronet and Fordyce to their meeting again is at least four times too great. If the absence of friends and lovers is thus to be intolerably prolonged, authors should in conscience bestow upon them an antediluvian existence.

ART. 47.—*Ancient Records, or the Abbey of Saint Oswythe. A Romance. By T. J. Horsley Curties, Author of Ethelwina, or the House of Fitz-Auburne.* 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 18*s. Boards.* Lane. 1801.

More abbeys, with 'battlement ramparts,' and 'heavy *Gothic* pillars of the *Saxon* order!'—The novelist advertises his readers, in a preface, that he sent his last work into the world under his Christian name of Horsley; but the approbation they have bestowed upon it makes him claim it now, with some degree of pride, by his sirname of Curties. But little more than fifty years ago, before turnpike-roads were so general through these kingdoms, a man who had a hundred miles to travel conceived himself about to undertake a tiresome journey; but, in the romance before us, sir Alfred St. Oswythe and his family are conveyed in a covered car 'through the mountainous wilds of Scotland, and across more than half the kingdom of England,' in *six days*; a fact which we confess we should have doubted, as it happened five hundred years since, had not the author set his *sirname* to it.—As Mr. Curties was so fortunate in the reception of his former work, we would advise him to try his hand at another, *A Treatise on the Mode of Posting in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Centuries*; and if he should be so lucky as to prove that the fleet nags of that epoch owed the swiftness of their course to the spareness of their diet, we will ensure him the protection of all the hackney-men of the metropolis.

ART. 48.—*The Victim of Friendship; a German Romance. By Sophia King, Author of Trifles from Helicon, &c.* 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 7*s. Boards.* Dutton. 1801.

It would be unmanly to exercise the severity of criticism against a female, who tells us that she has not yet attained her nineteenth year, although the work before us is, it seems, her fourth production. Indeed there are many traits in it which indicate a luxuriant imagination, and, not unfrequently, a considerable power of discrimination; but we are sorry to see so young an artist paint with so sombre a pencil. The fair author states, that anxiety for the *fame* of her works has materially infringed on her health and repose.—If she would take counsel from us, who are much older than herself, she would employ her juvenile days in some more profitable study; for ninety-nine in a hundred of the novels that are written have hardly their *titles* remembered ten years after their publication.

ART. 49.—*First Impressions; or, the Portrait. A Novel. By M. Holford, Author of Selima, &c.* 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 18*s. Boards.* Lane.* 1801.

This is the history of Marie de Vaublanc, alias Maria Clive, who, after going through a series of troubles, according to custom, becomes a countess. Why modern novelists have entered into league and covenant to make lords and ladies of all their heroes and heroines it remains for them to say; but certain we are that they have not the practice of the best writers for their example. Smollet, who was a very good judge of his business, leaves his *protégés* plain Random and

* We wish the corrector of the Minerva Press would not offend us, in every novel, by his typographical inaccuracies.

Pickle, as he found them: and Tom Jones is Tom Jones to the end of the chapter, although his mighty father Fielding, had he deemed it proper, could have raised his son to the peerage with more ease and grace than the greater part of his successors can qualify theirs for city-marshal. It is true Le Sage has given letters of nobility to Blas of Santillane, but then he first earned them by many years of service at court, besides that they were of much less consequence than a British title; and, after all, he has not failed to make his hero tacitly laugh at them. In other respects there is nothing reprehensible in First Impressions except its bulk. The author tells Miss Seward, in a dedication, that she will not find any thing in it injurious to religion or morality. We are happy to confirm this her declaration to the public; and if she had prevailed on that lady to compress the work into half its present size, by retrenching its superfluous garrulity, every incident might still have been narrated, and the reader would have found it not an unpleasing performance.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 50.—*The Lounger's Common-place Book*; *or, Miscellaneous Anecdotes. A Biographic, Political, Literary, and Satirical Compilation. Volume the Fourth.* 8*vo.* 7*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Kerby *and* Co.

We have followed this very entertaining author through the fourth volume with pleasure undiminished and appetite unsated. We recline on our elbow only in expectation of another course, or of the desert, for we fear the desert approaches, since some of the present anecdotes (*absit invidia*) are a little antiquated. In general, however, we perceive the same spirit, the same cheerfulness and good sense, which has so often entertained us. We have hitherto forborne from selecting specimens, lest we might lessen the reader's pleasure by anticipation. If we have done wrong, we will now endeavour to repair the mischief, and 'dip at hazard' for a passage.

'*Anxieties of delayed Expectation.*—He who has been half his life an attendant at levees, on the faith of an election promise, a watering-place squeeze-o'th' hand, or a race-ground oath; or he, who vegetating on a fellowship, with vows long plighted to some much-loved fair, is waiting, watching, or wishing for the death of a hale rector, at fifty-four; persons of such a description may perhaps be interested or amused by the following little narrative, founded on fact, and in the memory of some of my readers.

'The incumbent of a valuable living in a western county had for some years awakened the hopes and excited the fears of the members of a certain college, in whom the next presentation was vested; the old gentleman having already outlived two of his proposed successors.

'The tranquil pleasures of the common-room had very lately been animated or interrupted by a well authenticated account of the worthy clergyman's being seized with a violent and dangerous disease, sufficient, without medical aid, to hurry him to his grave. The senior fellow, who, on the strength of this contingency, had only the day before declined an advantageous offer, was congratulated on the fairness of his prospects, and the after-dinner conversation passed off

without that uninteresting non-chalance for which it had been lately remarkable.

'The pears, the port wine, and the chesnuts, being quickly dispatched, Avidio hurried to his room; he ascended the stairs, tripped along the gallery, and stirred his almost extinguished fire with unusual alacrity; then drawing from his portfolio a letter to his mistress, which, for want of knowing exactly what to say, had lain for several weeks unfinished, he filled the unoccupied space with renewed protestations of undiminished love; spoke with raptures (raptures rather assumed than actually felt, after a sixteen years courtship) of the near approach of that time, when a competent independence would put it in his power to taste that first of earthly blessings, nuptial love, without the alloy of uncertain support. He concluded a letter, more agreeable to the lady than any she had ever received from him, with delineating his future plans, and suggesting a few alterations in the parsonage house, which though not a modern building, was substantial and in excellent repair; thanks to the conscientious and scrupulous care of his predecessor, in a particular to which he observed so many of the clergy are culpably inattentive.

' The letter was sent to the post, and after a third rubber at the warden's, who observed that he never saw Mr. ***** so facetious, a poached egg, and a rummer of hot punch, the happy man retired to bed, in the calm tranquillity of long-delayed hope, treading on the threshold of immediate gratification.

'Avidio waited several posts without receiving further intelligence, and passed an interval which, the moment doubt interposed, was unpleasant and irritating: he filled up the interval as well as he was able in settling his accounts as bursar, getting in the few bills he owed, and revising his books, which, as the distance was considerable, he resolved to weed before he left the university. Considering himself now as a married man, he thought it a piece of necessary attention to his wife to supply the place of the volumes he disposed of by some of the miscellaneous productions of modern literature, more immediately calculated for female perusal.

'At the end of three weeks—a space of time as long as any man of common feelings could be expected to abstain from inquiry—after being repeatedly assured by his college associates that the incumbent must be dead, but that the letter announcing it had miscarried, and being positively certain of it himself, he took pen in hand; but not knowing any person in the neighbourhood of the living he hoped so soon to take possession of, he was for some time at a loss to whom he should venture to write on so important a subject.

' In the restlessness of anxious expectation, and irritated by the stimuli of love and money, in a desperate and indecorous moment he addressed a letter officially to the clerk of the parish, not knowing his name. This epistle commenced with taking it for granted that his principal was dead, but informing him that the college had received no intelligence of it, a circumstance which they imputed to the miscarriage of a letter; but they begged to know, and, if possible, by return of post, the day and hour on which he departed. If, contrary to all expectation and probability, he should be still alive, the clerk was in that case desired to send, without delay, a particular

and minute account of the state of his health, the nature of his late complaint, its apparent effects on his constitution, with any other circumstances he might judge at all connected with the life of the incumbent.

'On receiving the letter, the ecclesiastic subaltern immediately carried it to the rector's, who, to the infinite satisfaction of his parishioners, had recovered from a most dangerous disease, and was at the moment entertaining a circle of friends at his hospitable board, who celebrated his recovery in bumpers.

'After carrying his eyes over it in a cursory way, he smiled, read it to the company, and with their permission replied to it himself in the following manner:

"SIR, Stalbridge, Nov. 1, 1736.

"My clerk being a very mean scribe, at his request I now answer the several queries in your letter, directed to him.

"My disorder was an acute fever, under which I laboured for a month, attended with a delirium during ten days of the time, and originally contracted, as I have good reason for thinking, by my walking four miles in the middle of a very hot day in July.

"From this complaint I am perfectly recovered, by the blessing of God and the prescriptions of my son, a doctor of physic; and I have officiated both in the church and at funerals in the church-yard, which is about three hundred yards from my house; the report of my relapse was probably occasioned by my having a slight complaint in my bowels about three weeks ago, but which did not confine me.

"As to the present state of my health, my appetite, digestion, and sleep, are good, and in some respects better than before my illness, particularly the steadiness of my hands. I never use spectacles, and, I thank God, I can read the smallest print by candle-light; nor have I ever had reason to think that the seeds of the gout, the stone, the rheumatism, or any chronic disease, are in my constitution.

"Although I entered on my eighty-first year the second of last March, the greatest inconvenience I feel from old age is a little defect in my hearing and memory. These are mercies, which, as they render the remaining dregs of life tolerably comfortable, I desire with all humility and gratitude to acknowledge; and I heartily pray that they may descend, with all other blessings, to my successor, whenever it shall please God to call me.—I am, sir, your unknown humble servant, ROBERT WRIGHT.

"P. S. My clerk's name is Robert Dowding. Your letter cost him four-pence, to the foot post who brings it from Sherborne."

'Such an epistle from so good and exemplary a character, and under such circumstances, could not fail producing unpleasant sensations in the breast of the receiver, who was not without many good qualities, and, except in the present instance, did not appear to be deficient in feeling and propriety of conduct.' P. 10.

ART. 51.—*The Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor. 2 Vols.* 12mo. 4s. Hatchard.

The perusal of this work fills us alternately with pleasing and melancholy sensations. We rejoice that such a spirit of benevolence exists in the country; we lament that its utmost exertions can form but a weak counterbalance to the system which is now weighing it

down. The evil long threatened is too apparent. A kind of total separation has taken place between the rich and the poor; the beautiful order which once existed is now broken down, the middle class is gradually diminishing, increasing largely the number of the indigent, and less considerably that of men of fortune. Nothing can prevent this but a return to old principles. The present system of taxation naturally introduces monopoly or combination: the poor rates must increase of necessity; and the poor are unhappily now encouraged to look for support more to the opulent than to their own industry. The support of the rich, nevertheless, is inert, casual, and humiliating: that from their own industry is permanent, active, and increasing. Benevolence will gradually be wearied; and this kingdom verges to the situation of those on the continent, where wealth and poverty afford the most striking contrasts; and the natural consequence has been, that one class exhibits a total decline of industry, while the other is equally distinguished by extravagance and dissipation.

But whatever may be the effects of the present system, no one should be discouraged from attempting to ameliorate as much as he can the situation of the poor around him; and this publication affords him the amplest means of instruction. Many useful modes are pointed out, through which, whether by dispersing little books or pecuniary rewards, he may expend part of that income which every good man, who has it in his power, annually or weekly devotes to charitable purposes. One of these is so easy, and, at the same time, so little likely to be abused, and so deserving the attention of the fair sex, that we wish to aid as much as possible in recommending it to their notice. In several towns societies of ladies have been formed, who by turns undertake the duty of visiting poor women in a state of pregnancy, and to whom they lend child-bed linen, blankets, and other suitable articles for persons in that condition, which are bestowed under the inspection of the lady who is the regular visitor. To these societies gentlemen are admitted to be contributors alone, the whole management being under the care of the ladies; and we know of no office that can be more pleasing to the donor, or a subject of greater gratitude to the receiver. The small expence at which this act of kindness is accomplished is another recommendation to the plan; and the intercourse which it produces between the rich and the poor is highly favourable to the morals of both parties. The account of a society at Clapham is also deserving of notice; but the wealth of that neighbourhood enables it to undertake what can be performed in very few towns, and scarcely even in villages. The reader must also be on his guard how he adopts, without due considerations, many of the plans here proposed. We shall not scruple to mark with the most unlimited disapprobation the bestowing premiums on women who employ themselves in agriculture. It may be necessary at times that they should be thus employed; but they ought not to be generally encouraged to pursue a mode of life for which their sex is so little adapted.

The number of persons enrolled in the society encourages us to hope that the work can want no recommendation from us; though the laudable views with which it is founded, and the many very useful hints which it has thrown out, would justify us in expressing a wish that so useful a work might lie in the parlour of every country gentleman.

ART. 52.—*A Vocabulary of Sea Phrases and Terms of Art used in Seamanship and Naval Architecture. In Two Parts.—I. English and French. II. French and English. Carefully collected from the best Authorities written and oral, aided by a long and intimate Acquaintance with the Nautical Language of both Countries; and containing all the Orders necessary for working a Ship, and carrying on the Duty on board, as well at Sea as in Port. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards.* Debrett.

We received this work with pleasure, as, independently of the general utility which must result from understanding the professional language of a class of men so much connected with the interests of the public, a dictionary of this kind is of great service to the readers of voyages, &c. The author's pretensions—in other words, his own account of the merits of his work—we will exhibit to our readers.

'1. It contains many words not to be met with in any other.

'2. Many obsolete terms and phrases, with which other marine dictionaries abound, are rejected.

'3. It comprehends every order necessary for working a ship, and carrying on the duty on board; so that, by means of this book, an English officer can make French prisoners useful *, either in assisting to navigate his own vessel or his prize.

'4. Few (if any) words are omitted that are likely to occur in the discussion of naval affairs, whereby the necessity of having recourse to another dictionary is entirely obviated.

'5. The senses of each word are more copiously enumerated and more faithfully rendered.

'6. The terms of naval architecture are so defined as to give the reader a just conception of the different manner practised by the builders of both nations in putting together a vessel's frame.

'7. Examples are given in such number and variety as to include almost every case that can arise either at sea or in port.

'Of a marine vocabulary, it is not necessary to say more; and (to use the words of Dr. Johnson) I hope it will not be found that truth requires me to say less.' P. ix.

'In general, these advantages are not exaggerated. The definitions, for the most part, are clear, accurate, and scientific.

ART. 53.—*The System of the World. By M. Lambert. Translated from the French, by James Jacque, Esq. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards.* Vernor *and* Hood. 1800.

Fontenelle made popular the doctrine of the plurality of worlds. Lambert endeavours, with no small degree of success, to account for the relation of these worlds to each other, and to combine all their motions under one law, established by supreme intelligence. The ob-

* In the year 1782, the author being then first lieutenant of a French line-of-battle ship, taken by lord Rodney's fleet in the West Indies, was enabled, from his knowledge of French sea-terms, to make the prisoners always assist in working the ship during the passage home, the head-sails being mostly entrusted to their management. It is but justice to add, that in the dreadful hurricane in which La Ville de Paris, Le Glorieux, Centaur, and Ramillies foundered, the uncommon exertions of these French seamen may be said to have preserved the ship from a similar fate.

servations of Herschel give a sanction to part of this theory. Our astronomer has discovered a motion in the centre of gravity of our system; and future astronomers may, after a series of ages, lay down the law for its revolution. Lambert's system is very simple. The centre of gravity of the earth and moon revolves about the sun: the sun, with all the planetary system, revolves about a common centre of gravity In this system the preponderating body, the sun, is nearer to the common centre: in the same manner the sun, with other suns, may revolve about a common centre of gravity, and this centre of gravity revolve round another sun, and so on *ad infinitum*. This leads to the establishment of an immense body in infinite space, to which our system bears no greater proportion than a grain of sand to the solar orb. We will give the recapitulation of the whole doctrine in the author's words.

'The law of gravitation extends universally over all matter. The fixed stars, obeying central forces, move in orbits. The milky way comprehends several systems of fixed stars; those that appear out of the tract of the milky way form but one system, which is our own. The sun being of the number of the fixed stars, revolves round a centre like the rest. Each system has its centre, and several systems taken together have a common centre. Assemblages of their assemblages have likewise theirs. In fine, there is a universal centre for the whole world, round which all things revolve. Those centres are not void, but occupied by opaque bodies. Those bodies may borrow their light from one or more suns, and hence become visible with phases. Perhaps the pale light seen in Orion is our centre. The real orbits of comets, planets, and suns, are not elipses, but cycloids of different degrees. The orbits of those bodies which are immediately subject to the action of the universal centre can alone be elipses.' P. 161.

The idea elevates the mind; and the expansion of it in this work may afford much amusement and instruction to every lover of astronomy. The translator is not an Englishman. He cannot distinguish between *shall* and *will*; and tells us in one place that 'we will be ignorant.' We may certainly be ignorant, but it was not the wish of the author that we should continue in that state.

ART. 54.—*Substance of the Speeches of Lord Auckland in the House of Lord, May 16th and 23d, 1800, in Support of the Bill for the Punishment and more effectual Prevention of the Crime of Adultery.* 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1800.

The bill introduced by lord Auckland for the punishment and more effectual prevention of the crime of adultery excited a great degree of attention; and, after justifying the proposers and supporters of the bill for the goodness of their intentions, the public seem in general to have been satisfied with the rejection of the bill, as superfluous and unnecessary. In this speech is a very long quotation from Cowper, which shows more the state of the speaker's mind than the qualities of a legislator, when the utmost coolness of discussion was requisite. There are no proofs given that the laws, as they stand at present, are inadequate to the punishment of the crime; and, from the small number of divorces in so populous a country, it is

evident that the breach of the marriage tie is by no means so common among us as some rigid moralists imagine.

ART. 55.—*Substance of the Bishop of Rochester's Speech, in the House of Peers, Friday, May the 23d, 1800, in the Debate upon the Third Reading of the Bill for the Punishment and more effectual Prevention of the Crime of Adultery.* 8vo. 1s. Robson.

His lordship is an advocate for ecclesiastical courts; repels, with rather more humour than consists with episcopal decorum, the insinuations against the monks of the law; and unites in the proposed attempt to punish and effectually prevent the crime of adultery. In summing up the whole, he represents, as suppliants at the bar of the house of lords, 'conjugal fidelity, domestic happiness, public manners, the virtue of the sex,' all imploring their wisdom and justice. These suppliants seem surely to have been placed in a state of unnecessary alarm.

ART. 56.—*Substance of the Speeches of Lord Mulgrave in the House of Lords, in Reply to the Speeches of Lord Auckland and the Bishop of Rochester on the Divorce Bill.* 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1800.

There is an insinuation in the preface to this discourse that the publication of a speech in the house of lords is unparliamentary, and 'a fit subject of parliamentary complaint;' and the writer, with great reluctance, transfers his speech from that assembly to the press and to the public.' In this we differ entirely from his lordship, conceiving that it is a great advantage to the individual speaker, to the hearers, and to the public in general, that every speech worthy of preservation should be rendered by the speaker himself fit for the public eye and the cool reflexions of the closet. As an instance in point, we do not scruple to recommend the speech before us, in which, with great gravity of discussion, great insight into precedents, and calm investigation of authorities of laws, the speaker combats the arguments of those who supported the divorce bill; and has proved, in a very satisfactory manner, that it is impolitic, unjustifiable, and unnecessary. We shall select one part only, in which his lordship places the texts of Scripture generally quoted on the occasion in a proper point of view, and corrects the false notions derived from them.

'My lords, the law on this subject is promulgated in the sermon on the mount, and in the 19th chapter of Matthew, verse 9. In the first it is said, that, "whosoever shall put away his wife, saving for the cause of fornication, *causeth* her to commit adultery; and whosoever shall marry her that is divorced committeth adultery."—I would here ask your lordships, what construction is to be put upon the expression, that he who putteth his wife away *causeth* her to commit adultery? The merely putting away his wife would not, in any case, necessarily cause her to commit adultery, unless that putting away left her at liberty to marry another man; and if the expression in the text be so understood, there is no difficulty or ambiguity in the interpretation of the whole: whosoever putteth his wife away for fornication putteth her away upon a just ground of divorce, and therefore

does not cause her to commit adultery if she marries again; but if he putteth her away for any other cause, saving that of fornication, he putteth her away upon grounds that do not justify divorce, and causeth her to commit adultery by inducing her to marry another when she could not be lawfully separated from him. In the 19th chapter of Matthew this doctrine is more fully laid down; for being pressed by the questions of the Pharisees, our Saviour enters into a more detailed explanation: Being asked whether it were lawful for a man to put his wife away for every cause, he explains the near connexion of man and wife, and that those whom God has joined no man shall put asunder:—"How comes it then," say the Pharisees, "that Moses commanded a writing of divorcement?"—to which it is answered, that Moses, on account of the hardness of their hearts, suffered them to put away their wives, but that it was not so from the beginning: then follows the exposition of what was so from the beginning: "And I say unto you, Whosoever shall put away his wife, except it be for fornication, and shall marry another, committeth adultery; and whoso marrieth her who is put away doth commit adultery." Here the law attaches upon both parties, and they equally sin if they separate and marry after, without the exception provided; and if the exception operates in exculpation of one party, on what ground of reasoning can it be withdrawn from the other?' P. 39.

As a bill of the same nature, it is said, is to be again brought before the legislature, this speaker will, we doubt not, be prepared to meet it in its new form; and, if it should not differ from the last, will express as forcibly his dissent from it on the grounds here stated, because he thinks it 'at once adverse to the interests of morality, contrary to sound policy, and at variance with the law of God.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are obliged to Mr. Bowles for his letter concerning Regnard the traveller, mentioned in our review of Mrs. Piozzi's book. To our pert French correspondent on the same subject, we must reply, that we regard the name of Regnard as much too obscure for the general manner in which it is mentioned by Mrs. Piozzi; and the Latin lines are a complete gasconade. The concluding thought is pretty, but false in every sense, and

'Rien n'est beau que le vrai, le vrai seul est aimable.'

We have seen the long letter of Mrs. Piozzi to her friend, in answer to some of our remarks, and must be pardoned for saying that it contains more errors than we choose to point out; and that, in more than one instance, she ought to have consulted some learned friend, in order properly to understand our criticisms. Besides, it is unpleasant to our feelings to repeat our censures of a female, whose wounds were we again to open, it would only be for the purpose of pouring in balm.